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ABSTRACT

A handbook designed to facilitate effective instruction of Korean immigrant students in California has five parts. The first gives an overview of the language group, outlining their socioeconomic experience in California and the United States, reasons for immigrating, the Korean educational system, and attitudes toward schooling and involvement with the schools. The second section describes historical and sociocultural factors concerning the Korean language in both Korea and California, including the literacy rate and attitudes, attitudes toward certain language skills, training in and use of English in Korea and within the Korean community in California, community efforts to develop children's language skills, and use of Korean in the California Korean community. The third section discusses Korean linguistic characteristics, such as its history, the distribution of dialects, phonology, grammar, morphology, characteristics of the writing system, and cultural patterns reflected in language use. Section 4 recommends instructional and curricular strategies for Korean and English language development, concerning cognitive factors in primary and secondary language devlopment, readiness skills for formal language instruction, transfer of skills, and development of additive bilingualism, A final section list references, readings, district Korean enrollments, Korean holidays and special events, and organizational, community, and other instructional resources. (MSE)

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A HANDBOOK FOR TEACHING

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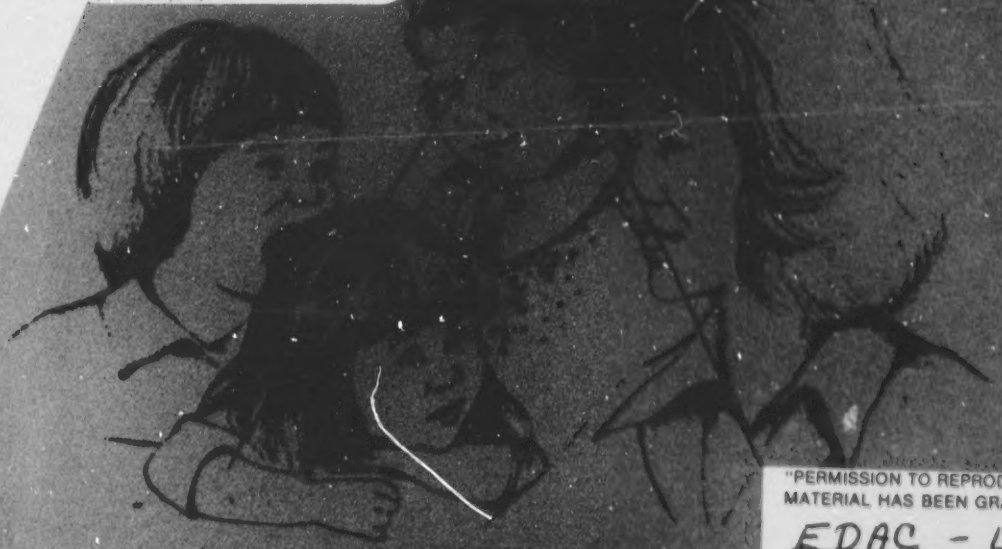

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A HANDBOOK

for

TEACHING KOREAN-SPEAKING STUDENTS

Developed by

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Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education
Sacramento, California

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PREFACE

Never in California's history has there been a larger number of language minority students of Asian and other minority backgrounds enrolled in our public schools. Of the 431,443 identified pupils of limited English proficiency in California, more than 20 percent are from the following language groups: Vietnamese, Cantonese, Korean, Pilipino, Mandarin, Japanese, Portuguese, Ilocano, Punjabi, Armenian, Laotian, Cambodian, and Samoan.

The rapid increase of these minority language populations poses significant challenges to California school districts, for there have been insufficient bilingual resources to assist these children. To meet this need, the Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education developed a series of handbooks designed to assist bilingual/ESL teachers, counselors, school administrators, and teacher training institutions in establishing programmatic, curricular, and instructional policies. These handbooks address the unique historical, sociocultural, and linguistic characteristics of each group. They also provide educational resources such as community organizations and classroom instructional materials. It is the department's hope that these handbooks will help all of us improve educational services to language minority children.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The California State Department of Education wishes to recognize the many individuals who assisted in completing this handbook. The Facilitator, Chong K. Park, formerly with the Los Angeles Unified School District, now with the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education, California State Department of Education, worked closely with the Project Team in keeping the handbook on schedule and in making many adjustments to the drafts. The Language Group Representatives, Kenneth Kong-On Kim, National Center for Bilingual Research, Los Alamitos, and Howard Kwon, Los Angeles Unified School District, wrote sections of the handbook and did research that was necessary in completing the sections. The following individuals from the Los Angeles Unified School District provided useful comments on the final draft from the practitioner's viewpoint: Hae-Young Kuhn, Susan Min, Suzie Oh, and Mary Shon. Harold S. Chu, George Mason University, Virginia, the Content Reviewer, played an important role in ensuring the accuracy and completeness of the handbook. Space does not permit listing the many interested members of the language group community and the wider public who made invaluable suggestions for improving each draft.

Recognition is also due to the Asian and Minority Language Group Project Team of the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education (David P. Dolson, Chong K. Park, and Van Le) who saw the need for the handbooks, organized an effective mechanism for them, provided guidelines during the writing of each draft, and edited each handbook for publication. During the development of this handbook, the Project was managed by Tomas Lopez, former Assistant Chief, Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education. The Project Team's high expectations and perseverance were critical to the completion of the handbooks.

The Department acknowledges the following specialists who assisted the teams at the beginning of the Project in May 1980: Eleanor W. Thonis, Wheatland Elementary School District; Benjamin K. T'sou, University of Hong Kong; and Lily Wong-Fillmore, University of California, Berkeley.

Particular appreciation is due Mary G. McDonald, former Director of the BABEL LAU Center in Oakland, and Alberto M. Ochoa, Director of the NOD-LAU Center in San Diego for their support in the initial development of the Asian and Minority Language Group Project and in providing staff assistance to selected teams.

Special gratitude is also extended to Charles Leyba, Director, Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles, who published the handbooks. The Department is grateful to Mary Spencer, Americas Behavioral Research Corporation, San Francisco, and Barbara Merino, University of California, Davis, for their untiring efforts in editing the handbooks.

While each handbook benefited from the assistance of many individuals, final responsibility for the handbook rests with the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education, California State Department of Education.

Daniel D. Holt
Asian and Minority Language
Group Project Team Leader

FOREWORD

Purpose

This handbook was developed as part of the Asian and Minority Language Group Project in the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education, California State Department of Education. Designed to assist school districts in providing effective bilingual education services to students from Asian and minority language groups, the Project identified as its first major activity the development of handbooks for selected Asian and minority language groups.

This is one of several handbooks developed by the Project. Their purpose is to increase school district's and school site personnel's understanding of selected Asian and minority language groups. They have been carefully designed for use by bilingual education specialists as well as administrators and teachers who have more general responsibilities for the education of students.

The first parts of the handbook address general background factors regarding the language group: immigration history, educational background, and sociocultural factors. The remainder deals with more specific information regarding the student's language and appropriate program offerings that will promote the student's academic achievement.

Theoretical Background

This handbook is complemented by another publication developed by the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education: *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework*,* which provides extensive information regarding bilingual education theory and practice. It also outlines basic principles underlying successful bilingual education programs and suggests a variety of implementation strategies.

The analyses and illustrations in the *Theoretical Framework* are not specific to particular language groups. Rather, the *Theoretical Framework* provides a way of conceptualizing and organizing appropriate program services based on program goals, available resources, community background factors, and student characteristics.

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*Information regarding this publication is available from the Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles, 5151 State University Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90032.

This handbook and others in the Project are designed to assist school district personnel in better understanding specific Asian and minority language group communities and individual students who come from those communities. Use of the handbook, in conjunction with the *Theoretical Framework*, should result in program services that are more appropriately suited to the needs of individual students that are consistent with California's bilingual education law.

Development of the Handbook

During the past three years, California has experienced a dramatic increase in the number of immigrants from Asia and other parts of the world. For example, the 1982 Language Census indicated that Vietnamese students who are of limited English proficiency (LEP) increased 273 percent from 1979, from 7,426 to 27,733. Cantonese-speaking LEP students increased from 7,219 in 1979 to 16,096 in 1982, a 123 percent increase. Based on the 1982 Language Census, LEP students from Asian and other minority language groups (excluding Spanish-speaking students) total approximately 89,000 (21 percent) of the 431,443 LEP students identified in California.

In response to these changes, the Asian and Minority Language Group Project Team of the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education (OBBE) began development of this handbook in January, 1980. It went through several drafts and was reviewed by teachers, linguists, and members of the language group community before publication. Every effort has been made to create a handbook useful to bilingual educators as well as to teachers and administrators holding other responsibilities for the education of Asian and minority groups.

An *ad hoc* committee representing 13 Asian and other minority language groups identified five key areas where information would be useful to school districts. Each of the handbooks has been developed along these areas. The first sections of the handbook are designed to provide a general understanding of the social and educational background of the language group and of its history of immigration to the United States. The final sections on linguistics and program development are designed for bilingual educators who are designing appropriate curriculum and instruction for LEP students. The appendices provide a variety of available resources for the education of students of the language group.

In spite of extensive work done by many individuals, this handbook should be regarded as a first edition. As time and resources permit, efforts will be made to refine it. It is difficult in one volume to depict the uniqueness and heterogeneity that characterize the language group. The reader should recognize that any language group is complex and diverse, with individual members and generations

having a variety of needs and characteristics based on different experiences in America and in their native countries.

This handbook has been developed in coordination with several other documents published by the OBBE. As stated, the research and evaluation information presented in the *Theoretical Framework* forms the basis for the theoretical and philosophical as well as the pedagogical positions taken in the Asian and minority language handbooks.

This handbook represents an initial attempt to generally describe the needs and characteristics of the language minority groups. Much more research and developmental work needs to be done by all who are responsible for ensuring the successful adjustment to America by the Asian and minority language groups.

Guillermo Lopez, Chief
Office of Bilingual
Bicultural Education

NOTE TO READERS

This handbook is divided into five sections. Each section is designed for administrators, teachers, and other instructional personnel. The following lists some of the potential uses for these sections.

Overview of the Language Group

Developing positive attitudes toward the language group by understanding general factors related to the group's experience in California.

Developing continuity in the immigrating students' education by realizing various aspects of their socioeducational experiences in the native country.

Improving parent and community participation by knowing more about the group's attitudes toward schooling.

Developing staff recruitment strategies by understanding the educational background of the immigrating adults.

Historical and Sociocultural Factors Concerning the Language Group

Developing effective curricular and instructional approaches by understanding how education in the native country deals with literacy and language arts.

Improving English instruction by understanding what contact, if any, students have had with English in the native country.

Promoting native language development by knowing how the native language is reinforced in the home and community in California.

Linguistic Characteristics of the Language

Creating native language development activities by knowing more about the linguistic aspects of the language.

Improving English language instruction by understanding some of the similarities and differences between English and the native language.

Recommended Instructional and Curricular Strategies for Language Development

Improving native language and English instruction by better understanding the theoretical bases for bilingual instruction.

Improving native language instruction in the United States by knowing how the native language is tought in the native country.

Improving native langusge and English instruction by realizing how to manage the student's contact in the United States with both languages in the school and community.

Improving academic performance by understanding the role of the native language in formal schooling contexts.

Appendices

Selecting materials necessary for language arts and other curricular areas.

Developing constructive relationships with community organizations and media services related to curriculum and instruction.

Creating liaisons with other districts in California by knowing where students of the language group are concentrated.

Using terms that are associated with the language group and educational services to support it.

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OVERVIEW OF THE KOREAN LANGUAGE GROUP

History of Immigration

Introduction

The 1970 census enumerated Koreans for the first time as a distinct ethnic group, even though their history in America goes back to 1903 when the first Korean immigrants began arriving in Hawaii. In 1970, 70,000 Koreans were reported in the census, making them the fifth largest Asian subgroup in the United States. Their country of origin, Korea, is a peninsula that thrusts from the northeast Asian mainland in a southerly direction for about 1,000 kilometers (621 miles) (see map, next page). The boundary to the north is largely formed by two rivers, the Yalu and the Tumen, which flow between China and Korea. The shortest distance between Korea and Japan is 206 kilometers (128 miles). The peninsula, contiguous to the two continental powers of China and Russia and adjacent to oceanic Japan, functioned as a land bridge through which continental culture was transmitted.

The first formal historical records in Korea began with the "Three Kingdoms Era." By 668 A.D., after a series of dynastic wars, the Silla Kingdom had conquered all opponents and for the first time unified the Korean people. The early years of the Silla Dynastic rule are known as "The Golden Age" because of the relatively enlightened creation of remarkable jewelry, pottery, and Buddhist relics still to be seen around the ancient southern capital city, Kyongju. The Silla Dynasty was overturned by Koryo, from which the English name "Korea" was derived. During the Koryo Dynasty, between 918 and 1392 A.D., a civil service system was instituted and laws were codified. In 1234, long before Gutenberg's invention, a movable metal type began to be used for printing. The Koryo Dynasty was replaced by the Yi Dynasty in 1392. Hangul, the Korean alphabet, was invented in 1443.

Korea was occupied by Japan for 36 years (1909-1945) until after World War II, when the United States and Russia agreed on August 14, 1945, that the United States would accept the surrender south of the 38th parallel and Russia, north of that line. In 1948 the United Nations authorized national elections in the southern half of Korea to establish the Republic of Korea and to elect national officials with three branches of government: executive, legislative, and judiciary. The Republic of Korea is sometimes referred to as South Korea.

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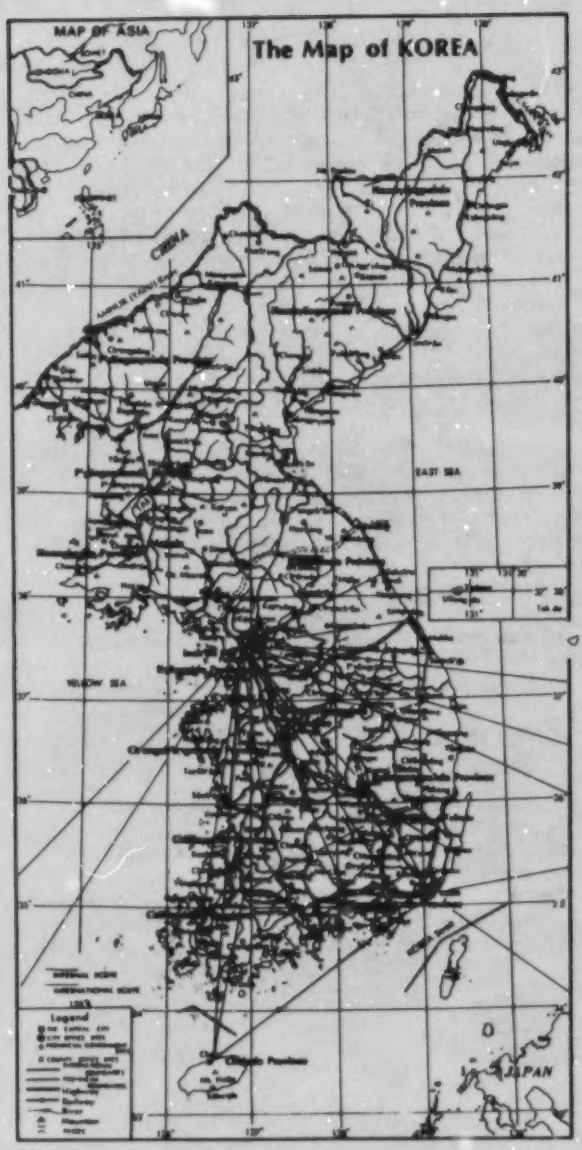

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Concurrently, Russia set up a communist regime in the north. After all American troops had been withdrawn in 1950, North Korea launched a massive invasion against the relatively undefended Republic of Korea. The United Nations' reaction was swift. Sixteen United Nations member countries joined the Korean War for three years until the armistice was negotiated in 1953. Korea is still divided between north and south, and the United States has no diplomatic relations with North Korea. As a result, all Koreans immigrating since 1945 are from South Korea. The information contained in this handbook, therefore, deals with socio-educational factors in South Korea only, even though the north and the south share a common language and culture.

Although Korean-Americans are less known than other Asian-American groups, the presence of Korean-American communities in California today is so significant that they are now a major factor in the social, political, and economic life of California. The 1970 census indicated that there were approximately 70,000 Koreans in the United States; but, with the high immigration rate of roughly 30,000 a year, their numbers have grown significantly. At the time of the 1980 census, 103,845 Koreans were living in California, 30 percent of the 354,529 Koreans counted nationwide (United States Bureau of the Census, 1980). Given the increases since the census, the California figure is now close to 130,000 Korean residents.

There are an estimated 50,000 Korean children in schools in this country (Kim, 1980). Of the Koreans in Los Angeles, young people under the age of 19 represent 43.6 percent of the total Korean-American population while the United States national average is 34 percent (Lee and Wagatsuma, 1978). According to the 1982 Language Census in California, Korean-speaking students of limited English proficiency (LEP) totaled 7,980, nearly two percent of the state's 431,433 identified LEP students. Korean-speaking students are principally concentrated in Los Angeles where they number 2,638, ranked third behind Vietnamese- and Spanish-speaking students (California State Department of Education, 1982). (See Appendix 3 for more on LEP enrollments.)

During the early stages of immigration, it is difficult to speculate about the future of these children in terms of what sort of adaptation they will make. Some children will surely be able to develop a rich bicultural identity, integrating their native culture with American culture. Others may fall into the mainstream of the American culture, discarding their identities as Koreans and creating possible gaps between Korean children and their first generation immigrant parents in terms of language and cultural characteristics.

The purpose of this handbook is to provide teachers and administrators with an explanation of the sociocultural and linguistic characteristics of Korean-Americans so that educational programs might be better suited to the needs of Korean-American students in this country. With the awareness of the importance of minority groups' racial and cultural identity, there has been a shift in American attitudes away from monolithic assimilation and toward cultural pluralism. Given these changes, it is the educator's responsibility to provide a favorable academic and social environment for the students to reinforce and develop their language and cultural heritage.

When did Korean immigration to the United States begin? When did immigration to California begin? What was the pattern of immigration to California?

The existence of a Korean community in the United States dates back to the early 1900s when the initial wave of Korean immigrants began to reach the United States. Some Korean laborers were brought to Hawaii and, eventually, to the west coast in the early 1900s (Kim, Bok Lim, 1978). Choy Bong Youn[1] indicates (1979) that the very first Korean emigrants, consisting of 55 males, 21 females, and 25 children, sailed for Hawaii on January 13, 1903. The males were farmers who had agreed to contract with Hawaiian plantation owners. They were also lured by promises of payment in American gold. There were 7,226 Korean immigrants who arrived on 65 different ships between 1903 and 1905 (Choy, 1979). After the Protectorate Treaty of 1905, when Japan occupied Korea, Korean immigration to America was suspended because Japan assumed jurisdiction over Korea's relations with foreign nations. There is no way to determine the actual numbers of immigrants between 1905 and 1945, since Koreans entered the United States with Japanese passports. Technically, no Korean immigrants were admitted to the United States until the Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1952 allocated to Korea an annual quota of 100 (Lee, 1975).

Prior to World War II, the Korean community in California was generally not visible due to its small size. At that time the largest Korean community in the United States was in Los Angeles and consisted of only about 650 Koreans living around Jefferson Boulevard between Western and Vermon. Avenues. This development began what has today become "Korea Town" in Los Angeles, stretching from Olympic Boulevard to North Hollywood, a community and business center for more than 100,000 Koreans.

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[1]Koreans normally write their surnames first, followed by their two given names: e.g., Choy (surname), Bong Youn (given names). While there is some variation of this convention among Korean-Americans, this handbook will use this system for consistency.

How many Korean-speaking people have immigrated to the United States? How many have immigrated to California? Where are they principally located?

Although the history of Korean immigration includes Korean political refugees and students who came to this country for freedom and advanced studies during the period of 1905 to 1945, the largest influx of new Korean immigration to the United States began after immigration legislation in 1965 eliminated the national origin quota system and gave Koreans an equal chance to immigrate. Following these changes, Korean immigration increased rapidly, with 69,510 reported in the 1970 census, when Koreans were first counted as a separate ethnic group. Since 1970, approximately 20,000 Koreans entered the United States every year until 1975, when the annual immigration increased to 30,000. The 1980 census identified 354,529 Koreans in the United States. Of the 103,845 (30 percent) residing in California, 60,618 were living in Los Angeles County; 11,339 in Orange County; and 2,394 in San Diego County. The total of 74,351 Koreans in southern California compared to 17,053 in the northern California counties of San Francisco, Alameda, Santa Clara, San Mateo, and Sacramento (United States Bureau of the Census, 1980).

The number of Koreans living in the United States in 1983 can be estimated at 500,000, given an annual increase of 30,000 per year, plus typical undercounting. This would place the figure of California residents at 130,000, with approximately 105,000 and 25,000 Koreans currently living in southern and northern California, respectively.

What are some of the reasons for this immigration?

Unlike the earlier Korean immigrants who came alone under labor contracts, the recent arrivals from Korea have come for permanent residence, accompanied by young children as well as elderly persons. Kim, Bok Lim (1978) indicated three major reasons for recent Korean immigration:

1. Educational opportunity. Koreans come with the intention of completing their education at a college or university rather than getting advanced job training in their fields. This desire for higher education for their children may also have been important in motivating adults to emigrate.

2. Economic improvement. Korean immigrants do not immigrate with the idea of getting additional job training in their fields; rather, they are looking for better paying positions in their present fields so that they will be able to enjoy a better standard of living.

3. Family reunion. When Korean immigrants arrive here, they usually have relatives already living in the United States who may also have been recent arrivals.

How many people in the world speak Korean? In what countries are there significant numbers of Korean speakers?

There are about 56 million Korean speakers in the world, which ranks it 15th among the world language groups (*The World Book Encyclopedia*, 1980). Korean speakers are mainly located in North and South Korea. The population of North Korea is 19,312,000, while that of South Korea is 40,457,000 (1980 estimates). It is also known that there are more than one million Koreans living outside of North and South Korea. The greatest numbers of these Koreans live in Japan (600,000) and on the North American continent (600,000). It is also reported that there are 120,000 Koreans in the Middle East and uncounted large numbers of Koreans in China and Russia.

Summary

New waves of immigrants with values and customs newly encountered by Americans are now changing the face of the United States. The impact of new immigrants on America is already considerable and promises to be even more significant in the future. Korean-Americans have displayed qualities of hard work, adaptability, self-confidence, and strong faith in opportunities represented by America. Every group immigrating to the United States has experienced a certain degree of culture shock, adjustment stress, and sociocultural disruption, caused mainly by a distinctive culture and language, limited English proficiency, and unique physical characteristics. Among Koreans these problems have been most severe for the younger generation, individuals caught in the middle of transition as they exist between the rather different worlds of school and home.

Typical Korean-American parents are in their late 30s, usually have two or three children of elementary school age, and most often have a high school or college education. In most households, both parents are employed full time outside the home, in contrast to their life pattern in Korea. The parents' expectations for their children at school, in both academic and social areas, are very high (Kim, 1980).

One of the most crucial areas challenging educators of newly immigrated Koreans is that of biculturality. It has been indicated in Kim's study (1980) that Korean parents hold ambivalent and often inconsistent expectations concerning the cultural choices their children make in finding their place in American life. Since children's

thought patterns and values are formed and developed early in life through education and interaction between the school and the home, the role of educators becomes extremely important in the socialization and acculturation process of children. Biculturality becomes a useful construct for realizing that children can develop new values and cultural orientations in America while understanding and developing cultural traits represented by the Korean family and community.

Teachers play an important role in affecting Koreans' efforts to adjust to the culture of the United States. By having their cultural uniqueness reflected in school programs, Koreans can more easily overcome their feelings of inadequacy and lack of self-confidence brought about by language difficulties and bewildering cultural phenomena found in the United States.

Korean students and their parents need the support of educators in preserving their cultural traditions and adapting them to the American context. As they promote their cultural heritage and adjust to their new life, Koreans create a new culture--Korean-American culture--which enhances their own lives and those of all Americans (Yu, 1981).

Education in Korea

What is the depth and quality of the education that Korean immigrant students have received in Korea?

To Koreans living in Korea and to those who have immigrated to America, education is not only a way to financial security but also a measure of personal worth. The present structure of education in Korea was formulated in 1949, based on the American educational system. Standard education is divided into four stages: elementary (six years), junior high (three years), senior high (three years), and two-year junior colleges or four-year institutions of higher education.

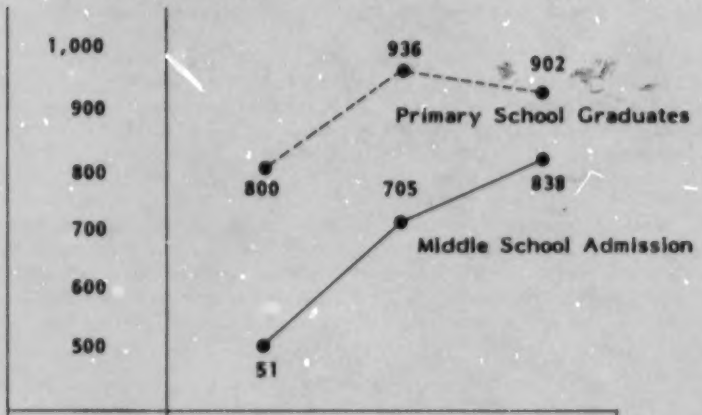
Many young children, aged four to six, attend kindergarten. Kindergarten is optional, aiming at developing young children's emotional and intellectual capacities prior to primary school education. Discipline is another reason for sending young children to school. If problems of discipline or academic achievement arise with the child, parents depend heavily upon teachers for solutions. Children often hear parents say that teachers will be informed if children misbehave at home.

Only elementary education through grade six is compulsory under the present system. Between 1959 and 1978, the number of junior high school students increased two-fold, as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1

RATE OF INCREASE IN STUDENT ADMISSION TO MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN KOREA*

Unit: 1,000 students



year	1970	1975	1979
Ratio of Advance (%)	63.8	75.3	92.9

*Reprinted from *Education in Korea, 1979-80*. Republic of Korea: National Institute of Education, 1980, p. 46.

The percentage of primary school graduates advancing to junior high school was 58.4 percent in 1969, 70 percent in 1974, 85.7 percent in 1977, and 92.9 percent in 1979. Based on this trend, the ratio of junior high school admissions to primary school graduates rose to 94.7 percent in 1980 and is predicted to rise to 98.5 percent in 1986. In other words, virtually every Korean child will receive a secondary education by 1986, irrespective of whether compulsory education is extended to junior high school.

In 1973, entrance examinations to high schools were abolished for junior high schools and replaced by a lottery system. This policy has had the desired effect of equalizing senior high schools and inducing an increased ratio of junior high school graduates advancing to high schools. Thus, in 1979, 81 percent of all junior high school graduates went on to high schools. The ratio is expected to rise to 91.5 percent by 1991 (*Education in Korea, 1979-80*, 1980).

Colleges and universities in Korea operate under strict enrollment limitations. Because of the gap between college admission limits and the number of aspirants, each school year produces a large number of so-called "repeaters" who add to the intensity of competition for college admissions. This disparity has been increased because the rise in the number of high school graduates each year has not been matched by a corresponding rise in college openings. The tendency of parents to send their children to college, especially to prestigious ones, does not change even after coming to the United States. Accordingly, a two-year junior college in the United States is the least attractive option for higher education to Korean parents and students.

Most students are pressured by parents from early childhood to succeed in school. Children often are told to maintain high academic achievement even at the elementary school level so that they will be able to continue their education at the most distinguished colleges. It is not uncommon to see many students reapply to well-known universities such as Seoul National University, Korea University, Yonsei University, or Ewha Woman's University.

Children are very selective in their subject areas of concentration. They are accustomed to working hard on subjects like math and English, which are emphasized on college entrance exams. Accordingly, it is common to find many Korean students in American classrooms paying more attention to math and English because these are the principal subjects required for the *Scholastic Aptitude Test* and other achievement tests. They may frequently be more concerned about their grades in these subjects than in subjects like physical education, art, and other electives.

Kindergarten. Kindergartens cater to children between the ages of three and five and provide a one- or two-year course. At present, with few exceptions, most kindergartens are privately owned, charging high tuition. Only upper- and middle-class families, therefore, are able to send their children to kindergarten.

Elementary school. The basic criteria for the curriculum of all primary schools, both public and private, are established by the Ministry of Education. Korean language, moral education, social studies, arithmetic, natural science, physical education, music, fine arts, and shop work are among the subjects taught. Total class hours a week range from 22 to 31, running Monday through Saturday. Table 1 shows the number of teaching hours at this level.

Table 1

PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM AND TIME ALLOTMENT*

Subject \ Grade	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
Moral education	70 (2)**	70 (2)	70 (2)	70 (2)	70 (2)	70 (2)
Korean language	210 (6)	210 (6)	210 (6)	210 (6)	210 (6)	210 (6)
Social studies	70 (2)	70 (2)	105 (3)	105 (3)	140 (4)	140 (4)
Arithmetic	140 (4)	140 (4)	140 (4)	140 (4)	175 (5)	175 (5)
Nature	70 (2)	70 (2)	105 (3)	105 (4)	140 (4)	140 (4)
Physical educ.	70 (2)	105 (2)	105 (3)	105 (3)	105 (3)	105 (3)
Music	70 (2)	70 (2)	70 (2)	70 (3)	70 (2)	70 (2)
Fine arts	70 (2)	70 (2)	70 (2)	70 (2)	70 (2)	70 (2)
Practical arts				70 (2)	70 (2)	105 (3)
Total	770(22)	805(23)	875(25)	980(28)	1050(30)	1085(31)

*Reprinted from *Education in Korea, 1979-80*. Republic of Korea: National Institute of Education, 1980, p. 45.

**Number of teaching hours is given per year. Figures in parentheses are teaching hours per week.

Secondary school. Secondary education covers the six years beyond elementary school. In junior high school, the basic curriculum includes Korean language, moral education, Korean history, social studies, mathematics, science, physical education, music, fine arts, Chinese characters, English, vocational subjects, and electives. Table 2 illustrates the allocation of time.

At the secondary level, boys and girls commonly attend separate schools. It is not until college that students are seen studying and socializing in coeducational groups. Therefore, Korean students who immigrate to the United States during their adolescence will have to make significant adjustments to new norms regarding cross-sex behavior. These students and their parents will need the help of sensitive teachers and counselors to facilitate their gradual adjustment to life in this country.

English classes emphasize literary skills: reading, writing composition, grammar, and translation. English teachers in Korea still rely heavily on the grammar/translation approach, with a strong emphasis on teaching students to read. As a result, communicative competence in English is not well developed by most Korean students coming to the United States, even if they studied English for several years in Korea.

Table 2

MIDDLE SCHOOL CURRICULUM AND TIME ALLOTMENT*

Subjects \ Grade	I	II	III
Moral education	70 (2)	70 (2)	70 (2)
Korean language	140 (4)	175 (5)	175 (5)
Korean history		70 (2)	70 (2)
Social studies	105 (3)	70-105 (2-3)	70-105 (2-3)
Mathematics	140 (4)	105-140 (3-4)	105-140 (3-4)
Science	140 (4)	105-140 (3-4)	105-140 (3-4)
Physical education	105 (3)	105 (3)	105 (3)
Music	70 (2)	35- 70 (1-2)	35- 70 (1-2)
Fine arts	70 (2)	35- 70 (1-2)	35- 70 (1-2)
Chinese characters	35 (1)	35- 70 (1-2)	35- 70 (1-2)
English	140 (4)	70-175 (2-5)	70-175 (2-5)
Vocational subject			
Skill (Male)	105 (3)	105 (3)	105 (3)
Home economics (Female)			
Elective subjects			
One of three subjects*** (Male)		105-140 (3-4)	105-245 (3-7)
Home work (Female)			
Total	1120 (32)	1120-1225 (32-35)	1120-1225 (32-35)
Extra-curricular activities	70 (2-)	70 (2-)	70 (2-)

*Reprinted from *Education in Korea, 1979-80*. Republic of Korea: National Institute of Education, 1980, p. 49.

**The numbers in parentheses are teaching hours per week.

***Agriculture, industrial skills, and fishery.

When students finish junior high school, most of them apply for academic high schools, while some proceed to vocational high schools. Academic high schools commonly have required subjects, plus electives and extracurricular activities. The curriculum is largely limited to courses required for entrance into various colleges, while the instruction is directed almost entirely toward preparing for competitive college entrance examinations. The prestige of a school and its instructors tends to be directly related to the percentage of students successfully passing the entrance examinations, despite government efforts to discourage this trend.

What proportion of the California immigrants are trained and/or experienced in education?

Korean immigrants are generally well educated. As a result of the passage of the liberal 1965 Immigration Act and the policies set forth in the Immigration Act of 1968, many Koreans are qualified to apply for visas to the United States under "preference three," which allows professionals or persons of exceptional ability in the sciences and arts to apply for visas. Consequently, a large number of PhDs, medical doctors, engineers, pharmacists, dentists, and nurses have been able to obtain visas and come to the United States. However, due to limited English proficiency, many of these professionals fail to obtain licenses to practice in America, resulting in their taking jobs that are not commensurate with their educational backgrounds. For example, it is not uncommon to find a medical doctor engaged in private business or a nurse working as a sewing machine operator.

Based on research conducted in the Chicago area under a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health, Kim Bok Lim (1978) collected data related to the educational level of Korean immigrants. The study consisted of interviews administered to a random sample of 800 Koreans in the Chicago area. Table 3 illustrates the percentages of Koreans at various educational levels compared to other Asian American (Chinese, Japanese, and Filipino) immigrants.

Compared with the totals for all immigrant groups in the study, Korean immigrants attained higher levels of education. It is also noteworthy that Korean women in this study attained higher levels of education compared with those in Korea. This may be due to the greater opportunities available for women in the United States, enabling them to pursue their professional goals and to use their education.

How do parents view the role of education? How do they rate the relative importance of education?

The goal of Korean parents to educate their children does not change after they have immigrated to the United States. To Koreans, education is not only a way to gain financial security but also a measure of personal worth. In Korea, education focuses on developing children's intellectual capacities and their abilities to control their emotions and behavior. Parents are fully supportive of the school and place hope for fulfillment of their own lives on the success of their children. Korean parents instill in their children very early the idea that parental acceptance is contingent upon high performance levels in school. Low performance levels elicit parental disapproval, criticism, disappointment, and sometimes shame among a great number of relatives and friends.

Table 3

HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL LEVELS ACHIEVED BY RESPONDENTS AND SPOUSES IN KOREAN SAMPLE, BY SEX*

Educational Levels	Sex	Korean Immigrants N	Korean Immigrants %	Totals for All Groups in Study N	Totals for All Groups in Study %
Elementary or under	M	3	1.7	25	5.3
	F	9	6.2	45	11.0
High school graduate or under	M	14	7.7	82	17.3
	F	25	17.1	72	17.5
High school and beyond	M	18	9.9	56	11.8
	F	28	19.2	45	11.0
College graduate	M	109	60.2	234	49.4
	F	74	50.7	201	48.9
Nursing	M	--	--	--	--
	F	2	1.4	16	3.9
MS and PhD	M	27	14.9	48	10.1
	F	4	2.7	13	3.2
MD and dental	M	3	1.7	12	2.5
	F	--	--	1	0.2
Post-MD and PhD	M	7	3.9	17	3.6
	F	4	2.7	18	4.4
Totals**	M	181	100.0	474	100.0
	F	146	100.0	411	100.0

*Reprinted from Kim, Bok Lim, *The Asian-American: Changing Patterns, Changing Needs*. Montclair, New Jersey: Association of Korean Christian Scholars in North America, Inc., 1978, p. 183.

**Totals include both respondents and spouses. Therefore, they do not correspond to sample size.

On the other hand, high academic performance levels are often given prominence and recognition in the Korean community as well as among family and relatives. When the report card is sent to parents, they often call each other to compare the grades their children have received. A child's grade is not only for the child; it is shared by parents, relatives, and neighbors. Korean children feel obligated to receive high grades. They are keenly concerned about their performance and become very competitive not only for their own sake but also for family prestige. In the United States, teachers may often find Korean children particularly sensitive about report cards. This is due in part to the high value that parents place on success in school.

What are the attitudes of Korean adults and parents toward involvement in the public education of Korean students?

The Korean community should be accepted by the school as a new partner, not as a group of strange clients with communication problems. Various approaches will be necessary to encourage Korean parents to get involved in school affairs.

Korean parents have high respect for school administrators and teachers. They believe in assisting the school by deferring to the authority of teachers and administrators. They depend upon teachers and their wisdom and expertise. Parents believe their role is to respect, listen, and follow the professional judgment of teachers and administrators. Unfortunately, such attitudes may be misunderstood as a sign of the parents' lack of interest and responsibility in school affairs.

Many often wonder how Korean parents can tolerate adverse conditions such as underemployment, extended work hours, and social isolation. It should be understood that Korean parents do not mind hardships as long as their children grow in a positive school environment. Koreans are in the United States principally for the purpose of improving the education of their children, and they are willing to tolerate great personal sacrifice in order to achieve this goal.

Parents' deference to teachers leads them to expect that teachers will manage their children's education with complete success. To achieve this, teachers need to win the cooperation of parents through effective communication, which involves more than fliers and letters. Teachers who take a more personal approach and show a knowledge of Korean culture will be most successful. The following suggestions are to help teachers to more effectively induce parent support.

1. Send letters in Korean so that parents may overcome the language barrier.

2. Use community agencies and news media to announce activities in Korean.

3. Occasionally set up meetings for Korean parents to avoid the embarrassment that often results from culturally mixed groups.

4. Establish personal contact so that any discussion of the child is kept in strict confidence.

5. Arrange social/cultural events so that parents will be assured that they have a role in school affairs. This will help overcome the alienation they often feel due to the lack of facility in English.

6. Set up meetings on late Friday evenings or Saturdays, if possible. Many Koreans conduct their businesses during extended hours and generally do not mind weekend activities.

7. Establish a "hot line" at the school with prerecorded information in Korean about current events of interest to parents.

8. During a conversation in English when parents have a comprehension problem, write down some of the troublesome words in order to capitalize on the English literacy skills that they may have.

HISTORICAL AND SOCIOCULTURAL FACTORS CONCERNING THE KOREAN LANGUAGE

Factors in Korea

The prolonged political and cultural influence of the Chinese upon Korea through the 2,000 years of many dynasties left an indelible mark upon the written and spoken language of Korea. A substantial portion of the Korean vocabulary comes from Chinese culture, especially from its Confucian classics, although such borrowings have been assimilated into the Korean language.

Prior to the invention of Hangul, the Korean alphabet, Koreans used only Chinese characters as their writing system. However, reliance on Chinese characters made widespread literacy difficult. There was a need to invent a simpler writing system that could be easily mastered by all Koreans.

King Sejong, recognized as the greatest monarch of the Yi dynasty, ordered his scholars to devise a set of symbols with which to write Korean. This highly phonetic alphabet later became known as Hangul. Its invention in 1443 A.D. constituted perhaps the most brilliant achievement throughout the history of Korean culture. For the first time, it afforded the vast majority of Korean-speaking people with a means to read and write their own language with ease.

What is the literacy rate in Korea?

In general, Koreans are enthusiastic about education, and almost all children are enrolled in school (Korean Educational Development Institute, 1975). Accordingly, the Korean government planned to reduce the illiteracy rate to less than eight percent by the end of 1981 (Korean Overseas Information Service, 1981).

Literacy is defined as the interaction in which the meaning encoded in print by a writer becomes meaningful in the mind of a reader. When a sixth-grade child is able to read sixth-grade level reading material, the child is regarded as functionally literate. Compulsory education, begun in 1962, has been so successful that the rate of elementary school enrollment of school-age children has rapidly increased to over 97 percent of all eligible pupils (*Education in Korea, 1979-80*, 1980). As a result, Korea is moving steadily toward quality education for all children.

What are the attitudes in Korea toward literacy skills?

Because Koreans have traditionally placed a high premium on scholarship and academic achievement, everyone is expected to be able to read and to enjoy reading. By the time they finish junior high school, most people read daily papers and monthly magazines written partially in Chinese, although their knowledge of Chinese characters is limited. In the past, Chinese characters have been introduced at various points in secondary education with varying degrees of emphasis. Currently, students begin learning them in junior high school.

There is continued controversy over whether to increase or decrease Chinese characters in published works. In order to be able to fully comprehend a daily newspaper, approximately 2000 Chinese characters should be learned. Some scholars argue that the Korean language will survive without Chinese characters and others insist that Chinese characters are needed to clarify meaning. In any case, perceptions of literacy are closely tied to how many Chinese characters one knows.

When are students taught to read and write Korean? What do students read for enjoyment? How do students use writing skills?

Children begin to read and write the Korean language (using Hangul) in the first grade and begin to learn Chinese characters in the seventh grade. However, students must learn in the early grades how to write their own names in Chinese characters because all family names are derived from Chinese characters.

At the third-grade level, textbooks include children's literature such as fairy tales, folk tales, and nursery rhymes. Daily newspapers and weekly periodicals add extra sections especially for children. Comic books represent another source of children's stories, fables, and other literature in both fiction and nonfiction. At the elementary school level, monthly or quarterly school papers are published in which children explore their writing skills. World literature for children, like Grimm's fairy tales and Aesop's fables, are popular reading. In the United States, these reading materials are commercially available in Korean in cities such as Los Angeles and other areas where Koreans are concentrated. Teachers should encourage parents to help their children develop their reading habits in the Korean language through activities at home and in the community.

What are the attitudes in Korea toward well-developed oral skills in Korean? How does the school system deal with oral language develment?

Because of the strong influence of Confucian philosophy, children are taught not to be outspoken. Parents and teachers stress the maxim, "Silence is golden," and often discourage children from raising questions or talking back to older persons. Questioning adults is often considered argumentative, impolite, or rude. As a result, children often become reserved and taciturn. Children's oral skills are not emphasized in Korean elementary classrooms because of large class size (60 or more children). Consequently, teachers are unable to individualize instruction and develop oral skills adequately. Thus, when given personal attention, Korean children often feel embarrassed. This requires adjustment for Korean children in American classrooms where they tend to participate actively and where they are usually given a great deal of attention. Teachers should approach Korean children very patiently and encourage them to join in classroom activities gradually so that embarrassment will be minimized. Korean children think twice to make sure they have the right answer. They are unlikely to raise their hands to answer questions until they are assured that their answer will be correct.

Teachers should assist Korean children in developing oral language skills in a gradual, sequential fashion. They will need help not only in learning language forms but also in learning the rules for appropriately using the language in social settings. They will need to learn when it is important to be reserved and when it is appropriate to be vocal and assertive in the United States culture.

When do students in Korea begin to learn English? What are the goals of English education in Korea?

Formal English education begins in the first year of junior high school, equivalent to the seventh grade in American schools. There is no emphasis on spoken, colloquial English. Initial time is spent in mastering the alphabet. Once students master the alphabet, simple sentences are introduced for linguistic analysis--subject, verb, object, personal pronoun, etc.--followed by direct translation. The Korean government has recently stressed spoken English, and English textbooks have been revised to promote this. As a result, teachers are paying more attention to oral practice.

Teachers are more comfortable in analyzing sentences than in correcting pronunciation, since their objective is to prepare students for college entrance examinations. College entrance examinations focus on grammar, reading comprehension, and composition. Accordingly, students become experts in analyzing grammar and structure before they acquire basic conversation skills. The Korean gov-

ernment is gradually encouraging teachers to include aural/oral skills in the instruction of English. Many English teachers are receiving intensive training to increase their proficiency in spoken English. Students who immigrate to the United States after they have begun junior high school in Korea will have had instruction in English, with the focus on reading skill development and limited emphasis on aural/oral skills. Teachers in the United States should assess the skills of incoming Korean students and be prepared to build on those skills with appropriate English language skill development.

In what spheres or domains is English used in Korea?

Koreans received their first intensive exposure to American culture and the English language after World War II with the arrival of American soldiers in South Korea. Additional contact with Americans occurred in June 1950 when the Korean War broke out and over 50,000 United States soldiers were dispatched to Korea. Many businesses, in an effort to attract these new American clients, began putting up signs in English. Words like "barber shop," "tailor," "bar," and "restaurant" became familiar to Koreans. The American Forces Korean Network (AFKN) also broadcasts in English. Today, people listen to AFKN programs to improve their listening skills and to enjoy Western entertainment. There are also a few English-speaking ministers in Christian churches who come from the United States, Canada, and other English-speaking countries. Koreans who attend these churches have some exposure to English. Most films in English are imported and given Korean subtitles, leaving the English dialogue intact. Much literature in English is available in bookstores. Weekly or monthly periodicals such as *Newsweek* and *Time* are readily available. *Reader's Digest* continues to be popular reading for high school students; it comes in Korean translation so that students can read the English edition with the Korean translation as a reference.

For those motivated to learn to read and speak English at an advanced level, limited opportunities are available. Yet, in everyday life, there is no significant need to use English. Thus, few people become accomplished English speakers, except for English teachers and those who use English in business and government circles. Nevertheless, most Koreans recognize English as one of the key languages of the world. Those adults and children who come to the United States are generally highly motivated to learn English and welcome opportunities to learn it in formal and informal situations.

Factors in California

Within the Korean community, where might students have contact with English before and/or outside their school experience?

Students' contact with English depends on many factors, e.g., place of residence, access to English-speaking peers, use of English in the home, attitude toward English, etc. It is clear that Korean families will vary with respect to these and other factors. Families that live in the midst of a heavy concentration of Koreans, such as Korea Town in Los Angeles, are likely to conduct most of their public and private lives in Korean. Their children will probably have more social contacts with Korean peers in Korean. It is also likely that parent-child contact will be primarily in Korean, especially among those who have immigrated recently.

Children of families that live in more ethnically diverse neighborhoods probably will have more exposure to English, especially through peer contacts. This kind of situation may also place more pressure on parents to shift to English more often, resulting in increased ambivalence toward the use of Korean both inside and outside the home. Such a shift may cause a breakdown in the quality of communication between parents and their children as conflict develops around the choice for the *lingua franca* of the home.

The number of siblings and their relative levels of English proficiency also will affect a child's contact with English outside the school. Older siblings who have been in the United States for a longer period of time and who are proficient in English often will teach English to the younger ones. On the other hand, older children who have immigrated recently with their families and who are proficient in their primary language may be supportive in sustaining and conserving use of the primary language at home, contributing to younger siblings' primary language acquisition.

Despite the factors affecting the Korean students' amount of contact with English, its use in the United States exists as a powerful influence on the students' overall linguistic development. Even in the most concentrated Korean communities within families that use Korean exclusively, most Korean students will have some exposure to English after a very short time in this country. Television, radio, movies, books, magazines, and peer contact offer a panoply of opportunities to listen to and use English. Mere exposure to English through these opportunities, however, will not necessarily lead to the students' development of communicative competence in English. The student may only develop passive skills that will need to be carefully built upon through English language development at the school as primary language skills are enhanced, developed, and expanded.

Teachers should be sensitive to the environmental factors that contribute to the student's English language skills outside the school. Individual variation among Korean students probably is due more to environmental and affective variables than to individual ability. Students' English language skills should be carefully assessed and programs developed within the context of the students' bilingual education support system. Accurate assessment is vitally important, since students often display surface proficiency that is not sufficient for the cognitively demanding tasks of school. Once the student is properly assessed, programs should be developed that are based on a thorough review of current theory and research evidence.

What kinds of systems do Koreans use in their communities to develop children's Korean language skills? How are Korean institutions involved in this effort?

It has been reported that 72.6 percent of Korean students in Los Angeles indicated that they always spoke Korean with their parents, while only 1.6 percent spoke English (Kim, 1980). Furthermore, to a large extent, the students' social contact with peers and others is also in Korean. Kim's study (1980) also showed that most of the students' best friends at school are Korean, and a majority of them play only with other Korean children after school. This study indicates that the Korean language is a major medium for communication and cognitive development of students.

Koreans' reliance on Korean as a medium of everyday communication is documented in a survey by the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (1977), which shows that 99 percent of the Koreans in Los Angeles, New York, and San Francisco were using Korean as their principal means of communication. Oh (1979) also found that in the United States 47 percent of Korean families subscribed to Korean language daily newspapers, while only 15 percent subscribed to an English newspaper.

Among the many weekend Korean language schools, the Korean School of Southern California in Los Angeles is one of the best known, given its size and widespread organization. It has several branches in various suburban areas. Besides this school, there are numerous Korean language schools in the several hundred Korean Christian churches located throughout southern and northern California. Most of these schools meet once a week on Saturday or Sunday morning when Korean language classes are provided to children. The organization of these language schools is a direct result of Koreans' interest in their children's development of the Korean language. Kim (1980) found that 99.7 percent of the Koreans desired that their children learn and use Korean.

In addition to this network of language schools, Koreans support a variety of vehicles for communication in Korean. At least three major Korean daily newspapers are available in most cities where Ko-

reans are concentrated. These newspapers include special sections for children encouraging them to contribute essays, poetry, and the like. In the Los Angeles area, Korean television stations broadcast in the evening, six days a week. Radio is available on a full-time basis in Korean. Korean department stores and bookstores offer easy access to an extensive array of reading materials, records, and tapes popular among Koreans.

Korean social organizations provide not only environments conducive to Korean language use but also opportunities for formal language development. This is done through essay and speech contests, summer camps, and trips to Korea.

Thus, Koreans have a variety of systems that are used in furthering the development of the Korean language in their community. These systems provide important resources that the school may use in fostering Korean language skills among Korean students. Beyond these systems, school officials should not overlook the most basic system, the Korean family. Parents should be encouraged to speak Korean to their children in order to develop and sustain a positive relationship with them and to nurture their native language skill, which will become a strong foundation for English language development.

In which community sectors is Korean used?

Korean is used within the several hundred Korean churches that exist in California. As of November 1977, there were 99 Korean churches and five Buddhist temples within the Los Angeles metropolitan area (Lee and Wagatsuma, 1978). Of the 99 churches, a few have memberships close to 1,000. Today, it is estimated that there are about 300 Korean Christian churches in northern and southern California. Most of these churches not only conduct services in Korean but also provide Korean language development through classes in Korean language schools that are part of the churches.

Other sectors where Korean is used include various establishments in the heart of the Korean community and media such as major daily newspapers, television, and radio programs. In addition, Korean is frequently used in many ethnic organizations and Korean-American associations in various areas of California. Many of these organizations provide legal, educational, and counseling services in Korean for the community.

From this discussion, it may be seen that the Korean language is heavily relied upon as a medium of communication in Korean families and their communities. Korean communities have developed an array of supportive resources for keeping Korean a viable part of their lives in the United States. These resources should be utilized by public school personnel in developing Korean language activities and other educational experiences for Korean students (see Appendix 5).

LINGUISTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE KOREAN LANGUAGE

To what family of languages does Korean belong? What other languages have a similar grammar, syntax, and phonology?

The Korean language is a member of the Altaic language family, including, among others, Japanese, Turkish, Manchu, and Mongolian. The languages in this family share certain common features such as vowel harmony and agglutination processes. Vowel harmony is a phonological feature whereby the vowels of a language are divided into two or more classes and the vowel of an element (e.g., inflectional endings, particles) attached to a word is selected from the same class as that of the word to which the element is attached. For example, in Korean ㅗ and ㅏ belong to the class of "bright" vowels, and ㅜ and ㅣ belong to the class of "dark" vowels; thus, 보-아 (to see) and 죽-어 (to die) are phonologically correct words because the vowels in each word are from the same class, whereas 보-어 and 죽-아 are not. Agglutination is a grammatical process of forming a compound word or any longer linguistic unit by putting together elements, each of which has a single meaning. For example, the Korean phrase 보시었겠다 has the elements 보 (to see), 시 (honorific marker), 었 (past tense), 겠 (presumptive marker), and 다 (declarative sentence ending), as contrasted with Latin, in which "-o" in *amo* (I love) indicates first person, singular number, present tense, active voice, and indicative mood.

The Altaic languages are also characterized by the absence of grammatical gender, articles, inflection, and relative pronouns, features commonly found in many other languages of the world. Among the Altaic languages, the similarities between Korean and Japanese have particularly impressed many historical linguists and others who know both languages. In spite of the rarity of common words, with the exception of words borrowed from Chinese, there are striking similarities in many grammatical features such as word order, agglutination processes of various noun particles and verb infixes, and sociolinguistic rules.

The influence of Chinese on the Korean language is extensive, especially in vocabulary. Among the total of over 160,000 entries in the *Kun Sajeon* (큰 사 전, "The Grand Korean Dictionary") (Hangul, 1976), more than 50 percent are words of Chinese origin. Most of these words are abstract and learned words, whereas native Korean words have largely concrete and emotive meanings. It should be noted that the words of Chinese origin, whether written in the Korean alphabet or in Chinese characters, are an integral part of Korean with unique Korean pronunciation. Although these words were borrowed into Korean in approximately the form in which the Chinese people used them at the time that the borrowing occurred, the pronunciations and concepts of these words have taken a course of development quite different from Chinese.

What is the distribution of dialects in Korean?

There are a variety of regional dialects in Korean. In spite of the various unique characteristics of each dialect in phonological, lexical, and grammatical features, they are all readily intelligible to each other. The Cheju-Do dialect is known to be hard for the speakers of other dialects to understand because it has many lexical items that are still archaic in other parts of the country. However, use of standard Korean in the mass media and in the schools has made most speakers of the Cheju-Do dialect more or less bidialectal, and there is no serious problem of communication among the speakers of Cheju-Do and other dialects. Thus, teachers should not have any significant problem in the classroom as long as they use standard Korean. The particular variety spoken by the middle-class native residents of Seoul is regarded as standard Korean.

What specific phonological and grammatical characteristics make Korean different from English?

The following sections, phonological and grammatical structures of Korean are selected on the basis of their practical implications for learning English as a second language and are described in relation to the relevant English structures. Thus, the suggestions made in these sections may not apply to English-speaking students learning Korean as a second language.

Phonology. Korean has nineteen consonants, eight vowels, and two semivowels. Korean and English speech sounds are displayed in Table 4 according to their phonetic characteristics. The differences between the Korean and English sound systems can be summarized as follows:

1. There are three-way contrasts among the Korean stop and affricate consonants in terms of the manner of articulation: lax, tense, and aspirated, as in /ㄱ/-/ㄲ/-/ㅋ/ and /ㅈ/-/ㅉ/-/ㅊ/.[2] There are only two-way contrasts in English: voiceless and voiced, as in /p/-/b/ (*p*in-*b*in) and /ch/-/j/ (*ch*unk-*j*unk).

2. English fricative consonants have five-way contrasts in terms of the point of articulation: labiodental, interdental, dental, palatal, and velar, as in /f/-/θ/-/s/-/v/-/h/ (*f*in, *th*in, *s*in, *sh*in, and *h*en). There are only two-way contrasts in Korean: dental and velar, as in /ㅅ/-/ㅎ/. The English fricative consonants are thus extremely difficult for Korean students both in production and aural perception.

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[2] / / indicates that the item represents a sound.

Table 4

SPEECH SOUNDS OF KOREAN AND ENGLISH

1. Consonants

Korean Point of Articulation					Manner of Articulation	English Point of Articulation						
Bilabial	Dental	Palatal	Velar	Korean	Common	English	Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Dental	Palatal	Velar
/ㅂ/	/ㄷ/		/ㄱ/	Lax		Voiceless	/p/			/t/		/k/
/ㅃ/	/ㄸ/		/ㄲ/	Tense	STOPS	Voiced	/b/			/d/		/g/
/ㅍ/	/ㅌ/		/ㅋ/	Aspirated								
		/ㅈ/		Lax		Voiceless					/c/	
		/ㅉ/		Tense	AFFRICATES	Voiced					/j/	
		/ㅊ/		Aspirated								
	/ㅅ/		/ㅎ/	Lax	FRICATIVES	Voiceless		/f/	/θ/	/s/	/š/	/h/
	/ㅆ/			Tense		Voiced		/v/	/ð/	/z/	/ž/	
/ㅁ/	/ㄴ/		/ㅇ/		NASALS		/m/			/n/		/ŋ/
	/ㄹ/				LIQUIDS					/l/	/r/	

2. Vowels

Korean Highest Tongue Position				English Highest Tongue Position				
Front	Central	Back	Jaw Opening	Front		Central	Back	
				short	(long)*		short	(long)
/ㅣ/	/ㅡ/	/ㅜ/	High (close)	/i/	(/i:/)		/u/	(/u:/)
/ㅔ/	/ㅓ/	/ㅗ/	Mid	/e/	(/e:/)		/o/	(/o:/)
/ㅐ/	/ㅏ/		Low (open)	/æ/			/a/	

*Most linguists do not recognize the four long vowels as phonologically independent sounds. Instead, they recognize length component as a significant feature.

3. The difference in the pattern of vowel contrasts between Korean and English seems to be somewhat less than the difference in consonants. However, the short-long contrast among the high vowels, that is, /i/-/i:/ (*lip-leap*) and /u/-/u:/ (*pull-pool*) is particularly problematic for Korean students. The difference between the short and long vowels in English is not simply the length but also other phonetic qualities which are extremely difficult for Korean students to produce or perceive. Also difficult for Korean students are the contrasts among /ə/, /a/, and /o/ (as in cut, cot, and caught).[3]

In addition to the system of individual sounds, each language has rules governing the variation of sounds in various phonological and grammatical environments as well as constraints regarding the sequencing of the sounds. Normally, the system of phonological rules and constraints is much more difficult to learn than the system of individual sounds. Some of these rules and constraints in Korean are compared to those in English.

1. In Korean, no consonant cluster is allowed in the syllable initial or syllable final position, whereas such clusters occur relatively freely in English (e.g., *strong* and *first*). When an orthographic consonant cluster does occur in the syllable final position, such as ㅄ in 값 (price), it is reduced to / ㅂ / in actual pronunciation.

2. In Korean, no fricative or affricate consonant sound occurs in the syllable final position, such as the English word bus. A letter normally representing a fricative or affricate sound in the syllable initial position is pronounced / ㄷ / in the syllable final position, as in 낫 (sickle) / 낟 /. The free occurrence of the fricative and affricate consonants in the syllable final position in English is new for Korean students. Korean students usually add the vowel / ㅣ / after the English syllable final /s/ (bush), /j/ (badge), and /c/ (church) and the vowel / ㅡ / after all other fricative consonants and stop consonants in the same position (e.g., 버스 for bus and 홀드 for hold).

3. In Korean, any syllable final stop consonant becomes a nasal consonant before another nasal consonant, e.g., /ㅂ/(p) to /ㅁ/(m) before /ㄴ/(n), 잡는다 (catch) -/ 잡는다 /, /ㄱ/(k) to /ㅇ/(ng) before (m), 맏며느리 (oldest daughter-in-law)-/ 만며느리 /. There is no such rule in English. Korean students frequently apply this rule to English, resulting in unacceptable or wrong words such as "banman" for "batman" and "singman" for "sick man."

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[3]For more information on phonological contrasts between English and Korean, see Modulearn, 1975.

4. In Korean, /ㄹ/ as in 달 occurs only in the syllable final position. When ㄹ begins a syllable (e.g., 레이디오) or a syllable having ㄹ in the final position is immediately followed by a syllable beginning with a vowel, e.g., 돌이 (stone-subject particle), the ㄹ is pronounced as a flap consonant, a sound similar to the soft *d* in "butter" as it is normally pronounced by an American English speaker. In other words, no Korean syllable may begin with the hard /ㄹ/, which is identical with English /l/ as in "learn." Due to this habit, Korean students tend to pronounce English /l/ in the syllable initial position as a flap consonant, as illustrated by the substitution of "red" for "led" and "breed" for "bleed."

5. There is no word stress (or accent) system in Korean, whereas the word stress is the most important feature characterizing the speech rhythm of English. Korean students thus tend to pronounce the syllables within an English word in a monotone with nearly the same force on each syllable, which considerably impairs the intelligibility of the word.

6. Both Korean and English have the two major intonation types, that is, the falling intonation typically for declarative sentences and the rising intonation for question sentences. However, the falling intonation in English question sentences beginning with wh- words such as "what" and "where" and also in tag questions such as, "You know about it, don't you?" is new to Korean students.

Grammar. Word order, subject-verb agreement, the use of honorifics, article use, and noun deletion are among the significant differences between English and Korean grammatical systems. Among many differences in word order between Korean and English, the following are the most conspicuous.

Korean	English
(1) Subject-object-verb	Subject-verb-object
나는 책을 읽었다 I book read	I read the book.
(2) Clause-conjunction	Conjunction-clause
네가 떠나면 you leave if	If you leave,
(3) Noun-locative marker	Preposition (locative marker)--noun
집 에 (postposition) house -in	in the house

(4) Adjective clause-noun	Noun-adjective clause
내가 산 연필 I bought pencil	the pencil that I bought
(5) Main verb-auxiliary	Auxiliary-main verb
가 보다 go auxiliary	dare go
(6) Subject-verb...question ending-?	Auxiliary-subject-verb-?
개구리가 뛰었니? frog jump?	Did the frog jump?
(7) Adverb phrase-verb	Verb-adverb phrase
아침에 떠났다 in the morning left	left in the morning

In Korean, no grammatical agreement is necessary between a third person singular subject and its verb in the present tense, nor is any gender agreement necessary in pronouns.

	Korean	English
Third person singular subject-present tense verb.	No agreement	Agreement necessary, as in: I know it. *He* knows it.
Gender of pronouns	No agreement	Agreement necessary, as in: *Mary..., she/her...* *John..., he/his...*

Tense in an indirect discourse. In English, the tense of the verb in an indirect clause should agree with that of the verb in the main clause. Such an agreement is not necessary in Korean. In the example below, the past tense in 말했다 did not affect the future tense in 가겠다 .

Example:

그는	자기가	가겠다고	말했다	He said he would go.
He	himself	will go	said	(Not "He said he will go.")

In Korean, an honorable subject, normally a superior in social status or age, requires an honorific infix 시 in its verb. Also, regardless of the honorability of the subject, when a sentence is addressed to a superior, the verb of the sentence should be in the honorific form (see examples below). There is no such system in English. (See the section on Korean cultural patterns for more discussion on this matter.)

Example:

선생님 께서 가시었다
Teacher--honorific particle go--*honorific*--past (honorable subject)
infix

(sentence addressed to a superior)

제 동생이 갔읍니다
my brother--subject particle went--*honorific ending*

The usage rules of the English articles (e.g., "a" and "the") are highly complex. Korean does not have articles comparable to those of English in the phonetic variation and grammatical usage. Unlike English, subject or object nouns in a sentence are frequently deleted in Korean, even in nonimperative sentences, when they can easily be supplied from the context. For example, "Youngchul" and "the dog" in the following sentence become redundant and are thus not repeated. Note that the various grammatical particles in Korean (e.g., dative) are not used in English.

내 가 영철이 에게 그 개 를 때리지 말라고
I [subject] Youngchul [dative] the dog [object] hit not

했는데 도 (영철이가 그 개를) 때렸다.
told although (Youngchul the dog) hit.

Although I told Youngchul not to hit the dog, he hit it.

What are the characteristics of the writing system?

To what degree is the system phonetic? The Korean alphabet is a phonetic writing system, phonetic to a much greater extent than English. Each letter regularly represents a sound or a set of sounds. When a letter is associated with more than one sound, it can be accounted for normally in terms of the phonological or grammatical environment of the letter. For example, ㅅ is pronounced /ㄷ/ regularly in the syllable final position and ㄷ in 보름달 (full moon) is pronounced /ㄸ/ because a lax stop consonant regularly becomes a tense consonant when it begins the second word of a compound noun.

Conventionally, students are taught that Korean has 14 consonant letters and 10 vowel letters. The 24 letters are normally in the following order.

1. Consonants: ㄱ, ㄴ, ㄷ, ㄹ, ㅁ, ㅂ, ㅅ, ㅇ, ㅈ, ㅊ, ㅋ, ㅌ, ㅍ, ㅎ

2. Vowels: ㅏ, ㅑ, ㅓ, ㅕ, ㅗ, ㅛ, ㅜ, ㅠ, ㅡ, ㅣ

From the basic set of 24 letters, the following are derived: five double (or geminate) consonant letters, ㄲ ㄸ ㅃ ㅆ and ㅉ; eleven consonant clusters which occur only in the syllable final position, ㄳ ㄵ ㄶ ㄺ ㄻ ㄼ ㄽ ㄾ ㄿ ㅀ and ㅄ; and eleven complete vowel letters, ㅐ, ㅒ, ㅔ, ㅖ, ㅘ, ㅙ, ㅚ, ㅝ, ㅞ, ㅟ and ㅢ. The consonant and vowel letters can be divided into four and five categories, respectively, according to the phonetic, positional, and graphic characteristics. In Table 5, the categories of consonant and vowel letters are presented in the order of increasing complexity, which was determined on the basis of the same characteristics used to categorize the vowel letters.

Among the 30 consonant letters and consonant letter sequences in Table 5, the five consonant letters of Type 1 are associated with a single sound each, regardless of the position within one-syllable words, whereas the nine consonant letters of Type 2 are associated with two different sounds each, one in the syllable initial position and another in the syllable final position. Type 3 consonant letters are composed of two identical letters side by side. These double consonant letters are pronounced the same as their single letter counterparts in the syllable final position, e.g., 박 (gourd) and 밖 (outside) are identical in pronunciation. The consonant letter cluster of Type 4 occurs only in the syllable final position. These clusters are expected to cause considerable difficulty because one of the two letters in each sequence is either deleted in pronunciation or moved to the following syllable through a set of complex rules, e.g., 값 (price) - /갑/, 값오르다 (the price goes up) - /값오르다/, but 값이 (price-subject particle) - 갑시.

Among the 21 vowel letters, those of Types 1 and 2 represent phonetically simple vowels, without any semivowel /y/ or /w/ as a component sound. However, Type 1 vowel letters are distinct from Type 2 in that in Type 1 vowels the vertical stroke(s) is (are) longer than the horizontal stroke(s), whereas Type 2 vowel letters have a longer horizontal stroke. The same is true with Types 3 and 4 vowels, respectively. The direction of the long stroke is important for the placement of the vowels in the orthographic syllable block. The vowel letters of Types 3 and 4 are diphthongs with /y/ as the initial component sound and Type 1 or 2 vowels as the second component sound. The vowel letters of Type 5 are composites of Types 1 and 2 and diphthongs in pronunciation with /w/ or /ɥ/ as the first component sound (e.g., ㅚ and ㅟ) and Type 1 vowels as the second component sound. It should be noted that the letter-sound correspondences in Korean are much more straightforward and consistent than in English. For example, there are no instances comparable to the English letter "a," which is pronounced in many different ways, as in "man," "may," "palm," "machine," "tall," "goat," "meat," etc.

Table 5

LETTER-SOUND CORRESPONDENCE IN KOREAN
CONSONANT-VOWEL-CONSONANT (CVC) SYLLABLES

1. Consonant Letters

Type 1

Letters	Initial-Final
ㄱ	ㄱ
ㄴ	ㄴ
ㅁ	ㅁ
ㅂ	ㅂ
ㄷ	ㄷ

Type 2

Letters	Initial-Final	
ㅅ	ㅅ	ㄷ
ㅈ	ㅈ	ㄷ
ㅊ	ㅊ	ㄷ
ㅌ	ㅌ	ㄷ
ㅋ	ㅋ	ㄱ
ㄹ	ㄹ*	ㄹ
ㅍ	ㅍ	ㅂ
ㅇ	∅	ㅇ
ㅎ	ㅎ	∅

Type 3

Letters	Initial-Final	
ㄲ	ㄲ	ㄱ
ㅃ	ㅃ	ㄱ
ㅉ	ㅉ	ㄷ
ㅆ	ㅆ	ㄷ
ㅆ	ㅆ	ㄷ

Type 4

Letters	Final Only
ㄳ	ㄱ
ㄵ	ㄴ
ㄶ	ㄴ
ㅄ	ㅂ
ㄺ	ㄱ
ㄻ	ㅁ
ㄼ	ㄹ / ㅂ
ㄽ	ㄹ
ㄾ	ㄹ
ㄿ	ㄹ / ㅂ
ㅀ	ㄹ

2. Vowel Letters

Type 1 (Vertical)

ㅏ
ㅓ
ㅣ
ㅐ
ㅔ

Type 2 (Horizontal)

ㅗ
ㅜ
ㅡ

Type 3

ㅑ
ㅕ
ㅒ
ㅖ

Type 4

ㅘ
ㅝ

Type 5

ㅚ
ㅟ
ㅙ
ㅞ
ㅢ

*Indicates a flap sound.

What is the syllable configuration? Although the Korean alphabet is a phonetic writing system like the English alphabet, there is an important difference between the two systems. Unlike the strictly linear sequencing of the letters in English words, the Korean letters are written in syllable blocks. In other words, a letter can be placed on top of or side by side with another, depending upon the shape of the vowel in the syllable and the presence or absence of a syllable final consonant. The two general rules are: a horizontal vowel is placed below the syllable initial consonant letter, and a final consonant is placed below the vowel. The syllables within a word are written left to right, and words or phrases are bounded by an extra vertical space between them. Following are some representative syllable configurations.

CV type syllable with a vertical vowel: 마
CV type syllable with a horizontal vowel: 모
CVC type syllable with a vertical vowel: 맛
CVC type syllable with a horizontal vowel: 못
CVV type syllable: 뭐
CVVC type syllable: 뭣

In Korean, an orthographic syllable block also represents a phonological syllable, which can be pronounced by itself. Note that consonants, like stops and affricates, cannot be pronounced alone without an adjacent vowel or vowel-like sound. The syllable is thus a salient unit, easily accessible to young children. In view of the importance of the syllabication as a reading readiness skill, the Korean system of writing the syllable as a visually discrete unit should be an asset beneficial to beginning readers of Korean.

When are Chinese characters used in writing? Since the Korean government decided on the exclusive use of the Korean alphabet in 1957 (Kim, C. W., 1978), there have been repeated changes in the government policy regarding use of Chinese characters. This inconsistency in policy reflects the divided opinion, still existing among the general public as well as scholars, over the merits of using Chinese characters and the difficulty in learning them. When the government realized that the 1957 decision not to use Chinese characters in public documents, media, and public schools drew a great deal of public criticism, it allowed the schools in 1964 to teach 1,300 Chinese characters (600 at elementary schools, 400 at junior high schools, and 300 at senior high schools).

The decision reversal was repeated during the following decade. The government ordered exclusive use of the Korean alphabet in 1970, and then two years later it introduced 1,800 Chinese characters, this time to be taught only in secondary schools (900 at junior high schools and another 900 at senior high schools). The 1,800 Chinese characters are those most commonly used in reading materials for the general public, such as daily newspapers and magazines.

What Korean cultural patterns are reflected in the form and function of the language? What are some nonverbal behaviors in Korean and English that have implications for instruction in California?

Very often, the linguistic structures of a language or the linguistic behavior of the people speaking the language reflect the cultural characteristics of the linguistic community. Nonverbal behavior also reveals aspects of culture. The following is a discussion of some verbal and nonverbal Korean behaviors that have implications for instruction.

Sociolinguistic Rules. In any language, there are linguistic and nonlinguistic devices that express the speaker's attitude toward the person spoken about or the person to whom the speech is addressed. One may, for example, choose to say "pass away" instead of "die" to express respect for the person who died. One's voice may be raised to express displeasure or a request may be started with, "May I ask you to..." to be polite or formal to the speech partner.

Korean has grammatical devices specifically for this purpose. For example, a special honorific particle may be attached to an honorable subject, as in 선생님 께서 (teacher + honorific particle) instead of 선생님 이 (teacher + particle), and an honorific infix is inserted in the verb of the honorable subject, as in 선생님이 오시네. Use of an inappropriate sociolinguistic level of speech is socially unacceptable and normally interpreted as having a special message such as intended formality (e.g., use of the honorific level when the familiar level is acceptable) and disrespect or contempt to a social superior (e.g., use of the familiar level when the honorific is appropriate). One sometimes may have to evaluate the degree of intimacy with the speech partner before choosing an appropriate level of formality from among the four different levels of speech (e.g., higher honorific as in 그분이 오십니다, simple honorific as in 그분이 오시오, simple familiar as in 그분이 오시네, and lower familiar as in 그분이 오신다). This speech level system is an important linguistic feature characterizing interpersonal relationships in the Korean culture.

Children acquire the basic rules of honorifics by the time they enter elementary school. If a child does not know how to choose an appropriate level of speech in a given situation by the early school ages, usually both the child's parents and the child are blamed for poor home education and the child's speech is branded as "baby talk." Many Korean immigrant parents point out that if their children have not acquired the honorifics system, they avoid using Korean whenever possible. Thus, the teacher in the United States' school should give special attention to the development of this skill in Korean language arts activities.

Behavior influenced by Confucianism. Acceptable norms for behavior in the Korean family and society are strongly influenced by

the teachings of the Chinese philosopher, Confucius (6th century, B.C.). Much of Confucius' teaching focused on the need to maintain social order through nurturing and preserving the "five relationships" that exist between (1) parents and children, (2) older person and younger person, (3) husband and wife, (4) friends, and (5) ruler and subject (which includes the teacher-student relationship).

Teachers in the country should note that an interest in preserving these relationships is quite prevalent among Korean-Americans. Each of these relationships is viewed as hierarchical and dictates appropriate behavior for each member of the team. Appropriate behavior includes honorific levels that must be used, depending on where one falls among the following relationships:

> ...a son should be reverential; a younger person respectful; a wife submissive; a subject loyal. And, reciprocally, a father should be strict and loving; an older person wise and gentle; a husband good and understanding; a ruler righteous and benevolent, and friends trusting and trustworthy. In other words, one is never alone when one acts since every action affects someone else. (Kim *et al.*, 1981, p. 11)

An awareness of these relationships will help teachers in America understand the respect that Korean parents and students have for teachers and other school officials. It will help teachers become sensitive to many Korean students expectations for guidance and direction from the teacher. Koreans' interest in these relationships is at the root of their conservative view of society and the caution that they typically exercise before engaging in interaction outside the family. Since they are aware that their actions will inevitably affect someone else, they want to ensure that their impact on others will be as they intend it.

It is important to recognize the sexism that may result in the practice of Confucius' philosophy. Korean-Americans need the assistance of educators in adjusting to contemporary laws and mores in the United States that prohibit discrimination on the basis of sex. Through parent education activities provided by the school, Korean men and women can come to realize their option to pursue myriad opportunities that should be afforded them equitably in the United States.

Taciturnity: an oriental virtue. In a society where Confucianism has played a dominant role in shaping the traditional standards of morality and value judgments, a child in a Korean family is hardly regarded as an independent, whole person. Most decisions directly or indirectly affecting the child are made by the parents or other older members of the family. Children are not encouraged to express their own opinions; and insistence on their own opinions in an exchange with a superior is scolded, whether the opinion is right or wrong.

Vocal expressiveness is seldom rewarded. Children are expected to remain quiet, particularly in the presence of adults.

Such an atmosphere tends to make the child reserved in reactions toward others and tends to characterize the learning style of the child as passive. In other words, the child learns most often by observation rather than by active verbal participation in the learning activities at school or home.

Thus, the taciturnity of the Korean child is a cultural characteristic and may not necessarily be a reflection of a lack of linguistic competence. This factor should be considered in the planning of learning activities and the evaluation of the child's progress in linguistic proficiency as well as in other subject areas. For example, the teacher may develop a variety of means to confirm the child's understanding of instruction, such as asking frequent questions of individual students rather than depending totally upon loud responses by only a handful of vociferous participants.

Korean Names. There are 232 surnames in Korea. Without exception, all surnames originate from Chinese characters. Over 53 percent of the whole population has one of the five major surnames: Kim (21 percent), Lee/Rhee/Yi (15 percent), Park (8 percent), Choi/Choe (4.6 percent), and Chung/Jung (4.2 percent), like Smith or Jones in English surnames (Park, 1980).

Each individual name has two Chinese characters, one of which identifies the generation, with the other indicating the individual's personal name. For example, in a family of three children:

Kim, Sung Shik
Kim, Sung Ja
Kim, Sung Chul

Kim is the surname, Sung is for the generation, and Shik, Ja, and Chul are for each individual. Sometimes the generation names are reversed, but the surnames always come first. Because of the rule in English that surnames come last, Koreans' family names and personal names are often confused.

Unlike English, there is no middle name in Korean. In the case of Kim, Sung Shik, the child uses Sung Shik as the first or personal name, and Kim becomes the last name. In this case, a child will be called Sung Shik by teachers in Korea. Thus, teachers in the United States should call children by their personal names, unless parents or the students have adopted a different convention. Among adults, Koreans always go by their last names with the appropriate title of "Mr.," "Mrs.," "Miss," or "Ms." Teachers in this country should, therefore, use the adult's family name together with the appropriate title. (See Appendix 2 for more information on Korean cultural patterns.)

RECOMMENDED INSTRUCTIONAL AND CURRICULAR STRATEGIES FOR KOREAN LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

Before discussing recommendations for curriculum and instruction, it will be useful to outline some of the linguistic and cognitive factors that affect children's development of oral skills in their primary language and English.

What are some linguistic and cognitive factors affecting the child's oral language development?

Primary Language Development. In any monolingual community, normal children will develop basic communication skills in their native language by five or six years of age. Except for pathological or extreme cases, a low level of intelligence and low socio-economic status of the child's family do not seem to hamper to a significant degree the normal acquisition of language as a basic communicative medium of everyday life. All that is needed seems to be adequate exposure to the language and the normal communicative interaction with the people who speak the language. Language acquisition is thus taken for granted as part of the natural maturation process.

This does not necessarily mean that acquisition of the primary language is an effortless task. On the contrary, the child's relentless effort at processing input and producing language is one of the impressive accomplishments of growing up. Two of the principal ingredients in the child's successful language learning is a high level of motivation and the rich, continuous input provided by parents, siblings, and playmates.

The basic competence, of course, can be further enhanced and enriched by formal instruction at school and conscious reinforcement from older family members. The child's competence level is also affected by other social and affective variables characterizing the group to which the child belongs, such as social class attitude and the aspiration of the group. Just like any other mental or physical growth, language acquisition takes on a systematic, developmental course that can be defined in cognitive, affective, and linguistic terms.

For example, the acquisition of production and discrimination of speech sounds proceeds from simple stop (e.g., /ㅂ/, /ㄷ/, /ㄱ/) and nasal consonants (e.g., /ㅁ/, /ㄴ/, /ㅇ/) to fricative (e.g., /ㅅ/, /ㅆ/, /ㅎ/) and affricate consonants (e.g., /ㅈ/, /ㅊ/, /ㅉ/). This is because the fricative and affricate consonants require a more complex and elaborate control of the speech-producing muscles and a greater degree of discrimination ability. Likewise, the acquisition of vowel sounds proceeds from the most simple vowels in maximum pho-

netic contrast with each other (e.g., /ㅣ/, /ㅜ/, /ㅏ/) to the other vowels sharing common phonetic characteristics among them (e.g., /ㅖ/ and /ㅐ/, /ㅡ/, and /ㅗ/).

The contrasts among most speech sounds are rather firmly established by the time the child enters school. Teachers, however, should monitor the child's speech and be sensitive to uncharacteristic patterns that may need further examination by language specialists in bilingual or special education.

The acquisition of higher level linguistic abilities, such as vocabulary, morphology, and grammar, also progresses in a systematic manner. Children learn words with concrete meanings (e.g., names of objects) earlier than words with abstract meanings (e.g., "love" and "spirit") due to the gradual conceptual development in children. The gradual cognitive and linguistic development also controls the development of grammatical abilities in children. However, most children, expect those who are severely retarded, acquire most syntactical rules by the time they enter first grade. Some factors that determine the acquisition pattern of grammatical abilities of children include:

1. Structural complexity. Some grammatical structures are inherently more complex than others. Both in Korean and English, the subject position in a sentence is normally occupied by someone or something doing the action represented by the verb (e.g., "*Jim* kicked John."복남이가 영철이를 찼다). On the other hand, in a passive voice sentence, the same subject person is filled by someone or something being acted upon (e.g., "*John* was kicked by Jim." 영철이가 복남이에게 채였다). Children in the early grades frequently fail to understand the different functions of the same position in the two different types of sentences and misinterpret the grammatical subject of the passive sentence as the actor (or agent) of the verb (e.g., "Tom" is the hitter in "Tom was hit by John").

   A relative clause embedded within a sentence has its own grammatical subject and verb (e.g., "I know the man *you met last night*."나는 네가 어제밤에 만난 사람을 안다). When a relative clause occurs between the subject and the verb of the sentence (e.g., "The man Susie met last night was well dressed."영철이는 복남이가 내일 학교에서 먹을 과일을 샀다), the discontiguity of the subject and the verb often disturbs young children's sentence processing. The availability of the extra noun and verb in the relative clause often causes mismatches between the subjects and the verbs.

2. Regularity of variation. A word or grammatical element may vary in its shape in various grammatical environments. The variation may be regular (e.g., addition of "-ed" for an

English past tense verb) or irregular (e.g., "brought" instead of "bringed"). Children often incorrectly apply a regular rule to exceptional cases until they learn to sort out the class of words that does not follow the general rule.

3. Frequency. The high frequency of a grammatical element may facilitate the acquisition of the element despite the high degree of complexity in its grammatical function or meaning. For example, the usage rules of the English articles are extremely complex. Nevertheless, the high frequency of the articles facilitates the acquisition of these items. The usage rules of Korean particles, such as 가, 는, 를, and 로 are rather complex; yet a native Korean child acquires the rules quite early without particular difficulty due to the high frequency of these items.

4. Conceptual and logical complexity. Certain grammatical structures are associated with specific conceptual and grammatical meanings. For example, the English perfect tense (e.g., have come) and subjunctive mood (e.g., would have been) represent a set of complex temporal concepts and logically complex propositions, respectively. Some Korean examples of this kind would be the retrospective tense expressed by 더 as in 오더라, 오겠더라, and 왔더라, and verb auxiliaries such as 체하다 and — 하기는 하다). Proper comprehension of the above examples requires knowledge of the complex relationship between time and action and between probability and reality, which is difficult for young children.

   Both English and Korean have complex sentences in which two clauses, main and subordinate, are connected by means of a conjunction such as "because," "if," "after," etc. A complex sentence of this kind is easier to comprehend when the two component clauses are presented in the order of cause-effect and condition-conclusion, and in the natural temporal order of the events.

Second Language Development. Research findings indicate that a student learning English as a second language learns English grammatical elements in nearly the same order as a native English-speaking child regardless of the native language background of the student (Dulay and Burt, 1974). The findings indicate that the difficulty in learning a second language depends mainly upon the linguistic complexity inherent in the second language and sociolinguistic factors, rather than the interference from the native language. The emphasis thus has shifted away somewhat from the contrastive analysis of the native and second languages, which was used as the major tool to predict the difficulties in the second language learning.

Second language structures avoided by second language learners are often those that do not exist in the student's native language (Schachter, 1974). This observation, of course, implies that the interference from the native language is still at work and that contrastive analysis provides valuable information about the student's second language learning strategies. At any rate, systematic knowledge of both the native and second language is important for the teacher in facilitating the student's acquisition of both.

At what stage of minority language development should planned/organized instruction in oral English begin?

Most language minority students benefit from oral English language instruction as soon as they enter school. It is not usually necessary to delay the development of basic interpersonal communicative skills in English. The critical element in school contexts is to design instructional programs for language minority students so that exposure to English results in the efficient acquisition of basic communicative competence without interference with normal cognitive/academic, subject matter, and affective development.

In school situations, language minority students are exposed to English in basically four ways: (1) submersion classes, (2) grammar-based ESL, (3) communicative-based ESL, and (4) sheltered English classes (see Glossary). Submersion classes are situations in which teachers speak in a native speaker-to-native speaker register as if all of the students in the class were native speakers of English. Grammar-based ESL classes focus on phonology and syntax and emphasize learning language rules through inductive (grammar-translation) or deductive (audiolingual or cognitive code) methods. Communicative-based ESL, by contrast, places emphasis on language use and functions. This type of instruction focuses on basic communicative competence, rather than learning grammar rules. Sheltered English approaches deliver subject matter in the second language. In these situations L_2 acquirers are usually grouped together, special materials are provided, students are allowed to speak in their native language (although the teacher always models native speaker or near-native speaker speech), and a native speaker-to-nonnative speaker register ("motherese" or "foreigner talk") is used by the teacher. The research suggests that communicative-based ESL and sheltered English instruction effectively promote the acquisition of basic interpersonal communicative skills in English. Grammar-based ESL and submersion classes have been found to be less effective in promoting such skills (Krashen, 1981; Terrell, 1981).

Also, grammar-based ESL instruction, at best, leads to the development of the language monitor (Krashen, 1981). The monitor assists second language learners in the production of grammatically accurate utterances. However, several conditions must exist before individuals can efficiently use the monitor. First, the task must be

focused on language forms in some way (e.g., a grammar test). Second, the learner must have previously internalized the desired rule and be able to recognize the appropriateness of the specific rule for the specific structure desired. Finally, the speaker needs sufficient time to retrieve the rule, adapt it to the speech situation, and use it correctly in producing the utterance. These conditions are not available to individuals in most normal speech situations.

Submersion environments are even less effective than grammar-based ESL, since during submersion lessons language minority students do not comprehend what is being said. Krashen (1981) states that the critical element of "comprehensible input" is i + 1. The "i" is what the student can already comprehend in the L_2. The "+1" is the additional input made comprehensible by a variety of strategies and techniques (Krashen, 1981). In submersion classes, however, the provision of i + 1 is only very infrequently achieved. Since most of the input is directed toward native English speakers, the language minority students are exposed to English input at incomprehensible levels of i + 1, i + 3, and i + n. Considerable research indicates that submersion situations effectively promote neither the development of basic interpersonal communicative skills nor cognitive/academic language proficiency among language minority students (Cummins, 1981; Krashen, 1981).

According to some recent second-language acquisition studies (Krashen, 1981; Terrell, 1981), the attainment of basic interpersonal communicative skills in a second language is largely determined by the amount of "comprehensible second-language input" a student receives under favorable conditions. Communicative-based ESL and sheltered English situations provide students with large amounts of such input under optimal conditions. Submersion environments and grammar-based ESL situations provide students with only limited amounts of "comprehensible input" (especially in the initial stages) under conditions considerably less favorable for second language acquisition.

Unless there are important psycho-educational reasons, such as recent trauma or special learning disabilities, language minority students will benefit from exposure to English in communicative-based ESL and sheltered English situations. This will allow the students to acquire English and will not necessarily interfere with normal cognitive/academic development or primary language development if the program also provides adequate instruction in these areas.

On the other hand, grammar-based ESL and submersion environments may be counterproductive to English acquisition. First, young children and older children who have not experienced normal cognitive/academic development probably do not have their cognitive processes developed enough to assimilate the complex and decontextualized language that characterizes grammar-based ESL and submersion classes. Additionally, in some cases, so much attention is placed on speaking

only in grammatically correct utterances that students become inhibited.

In summary, substantial research evidence suggests that submersion environments and grammar-based ESL (audiolingual, cognitive code, and grammar translation) should not be provided to language minority students until they attain sufficient levels of basic interpersonal communicative skills and cognitive/academic language proficiency to benefit from such instructional contexts. Communicative-based ESL (e.g., the Natural Approach) and sheltered English classes are effective in promoting the development of basic interpersonal communicative skills in English for students at any age and developmental or academic level, except for those children who have diagnosed physical disabilities or who are suffering from some psychological trauma (e.g., recently arrived refugees).

What are the readiness skills for learning to read Korean? What levels of oral skills are necessary?

Reading is a process of extracting information from printed letters. The process invoives not a single skill but a complex set of component skills. A young child beginning to learn to read thus experiences various kinds of difficulties such as in visual perception of letters, sounding out the letters, blending individual sounds into a word, and matching the word with an appropriate meaning. All these skills may seem very obvious and easy to learn to a fluent reader, or even to a nonreader whose cognitive development is mature enough to cope with the analytic and synthetic processes involved in reading. To a child of five or six years, however, the relatively mechanical process of sounding out a written word is not so easy. As a matter of fact, it is so difficult that the initial failure to learn to read is mostly due to the student's problem in understanding that a spoken or written word is composed of discrete individual sounds or letters.

Some important skills necessary for preparing a child to read words or simple sentences include:

1. Auditory analysis. A phonetic writing system, such as Korean and English, demands an auditory analysis of a spoken word into individual sounds in order to match it to the printed word, which is itself a string of individual letters. Auditory analysis is extremely difficult for a five- or six-year-old child and is not learned spontaneously. Some recognized methods of developing this skill are:

   a. Matching words that have the same sound in a given position of the words.

      Example: "Which two words begin with the same sound among /공/, /산/, and /개/?"

b. Blending sounds, that is, putting together more than one sound.

Example: "What word do you get when you put these sounds together: /ㄴ/ and /ㅏ/?"

c. Segmentation of a word into component sounds or syllables.

Example: "What word do you get when you take out /ㄱ/ from /길/?"

"What word do you get when you take out /모/ from /모자/?"

2. Letter shape. Letter-shape discrimination is normally a task much easier than auditory analysis, partly because most children have already been exposed to letters in street signs, newspapers, cartoons, or television commercials. However, confusion between reversals (e.g., ㅏ,ㅓ,ㅜ,ㅑ,ㅕ) and between letters sharing the similar overall configuration (e.g., ㅈ,ㅊ and ㅎ,ㅊ) is quite common. In teaching these easily confused letters, emphasis should be placed on the contrastive features of the letters.

3. Letter names. There are conflicting views on the relationship between the knowledge of letter names and early reading development. However, it has commonly been assumed that this knowledge is useful in learning to read English because the names of the English alphabet letters contain the sounds of the letters. This provides an important clue to the letter-sound correspondences. The names of Korean letters are systematic to a much greater extent than those of English: All the vowel names are exactly the sounds of the vowels without exception, and all the consonant letter names in two syllables begin with and end in the sound represented by each letter in the respective position. Furthermore, the two vowels in the consonant letter names--that is, /ㅣ/ in the first syllable and /ㅡ/ in the second syllable, as in 니은 and 디귿 --are identical across all the consonants, with the exceptions of 기역 and 시옷. These relationships between letter names and sounds of the letters in Korean are expected to facilitate the learning of letter-sound correspondences as well as the memorization of the names themselves. In the process of learning the letter names, visual letter discrimination would also be expected to improve.

4. Letter-sound matching. As the child makes progress in the skills of auditory analysis, letter-shape discrimination, and letter naming, letter-sound matching may be gradually introduced. It should not be assumed that the mastery of the above readiness skills automatically leads to the learning of the letter-sound matching skill. The transiency of the spoken utterances would still make difficult the task of matching the units of two dif-

ferent modes, that is, units of speech and units of writing. The child is highly sensitive to every detailed factor such as the phonetic quality of the sounds (e.g., whether a consonant is prolongable or not, as in /ㄴ/ vs. /ㄷ/), the position of letters within a word (e.g., word initial, medial, or final position), the length of the word (e.g., one-syllable or multisyllable words), and the meaning of the word (e.g., abstract or concrete meaning).

Letter-sound matching can be taught most effectively with sounds that can be stretched without interruption, such as vowels and continuant consonants (e.g., /ㄴ/ and /ㅁ/ are stretchable in both syllable initial and final positions, /ㅅ/ and /ㅊ/ only in the syllable initial position, and /ㅇ/ and /ㄹ/ only in the syllable final position). These continuant consonants can be pronounced by themselves without any adjacent vowel, and the independent pronounceability of these sounds makes the blending of the consonants with an adjacent vowel easy.

It is recommended that consonant contrasts be introduced at the syllable initial position first, followed by consonants in the final position because the final position is more difficult. Vowels are generally harder than consonants because of their occurrence typically in the syllable medial position, which is the most difficult. It is also recommended that the initial training of letter-sound matching start with the simple CV type syllables and then to the syllables with a final consonant. Use of real words instead of nonsense syllables would make the learning more meaningful and interesting.

5. Syllable configuration. The position of the vowel letter in a syllable block depends upon the direction of the long stroke of the vowel letter. The distinction between the vertical and horizontal vowels thus should be made familiar to the children through a game-like activity such as matching the two types of vowel letters with the words "standing" and "lying down."

6. Oral language proficiency. Sometimes a child who can sound out a printed word comes short of matching the spoken word with an appropriate meaning, even when the word is in the child's active vocabulary. Sounding out the word alone may have exhausted the child's processing capacity, resulting in a failure to make a meaningful connection between what is sounded out and its meaning. If the meaning of a word is unclear to the child, the task of matching would be even harder.

Some children take a different strategy. They start first by guessing the meaning of a printed word on the basis of the context of its occurrence or partial recognition of the word and eventually succeed in comprehending it. If the word is not in

the child's active vocabulary, the chance of success is reduced accordingly.

Normally, reading materials at a particular grade level are written with the assumption that the students using the materials have reached the level of oral language proficiency expected of average students at the grade level. Thus, beginning readers of Korean in kindergarten or first grade should have oral Korean proficiency comparable to that of an average normal child of the same age. If the level of oral proficiency of a child is found to be below the difficulty level of the reading materials at a given grade level, either the level of oral proficiency should be upgraded or the reading materials should be reselected so that the level of oral proficiency matches the difficulty level of the reading materials. (See Appendix 4 for materials on Korean language development.)

What literacy skills in Korean are most easily transferred to the student's learning of English reading?

Transfer is a cognitive process involving the application of an acquired skill to other new, appropriate situations. Since early reading acquisition is closely tied to cognitive growth and learning to read different languages requires various common cognitive skills, it is expected that the acquisition of certain skills in one language facilitates learning the same or similar skills in another language. The following are some of the reading skills expected to be transferred between Korean and English.

1. Auditory analysis. It is a universal feature of all the languages of the world that a word is composed of several component sounds. Thus, in spite of the differences in the system of sounds between Korean and English, the ability to analyze a word into discrete individual sounds is learned only once and need not be relearned in another language.

2. Letter-sound relationship. The writing systems of both Korean and English are phonetic. The fact that the letters in a word represent speech sounds needs to be learned only once.

3. Letter name and sound clues. The letter names of both Korean and English provide clues to the sounds of the letters. The knowledge of this relationship and the use of this knowledge in reading one language can be readily transferred to another language.

4. Visual factors. Both Korean and English have nearly the same system for punctuating except for the English-specific

capitalization. Also, in both languages a group of sentences closely related to each other to form a unified thought is presented as a visually independent unit by means of indentation. Both languages can be written left to right in a linear fashion.

5. Other factors. Both languages share basically the same semantic and logical relationships between linguistic units, such as synonymy, antonymy, homophony, metaphor, and paraphrase. High level skills, such as the skills of analysis and organization of complex text information required for the comprehension of written discourses, are also common in all languages of the world.

The transferable skills discussed above are of a very general cognitive nature. In other words, transferability is due to one's common cognitive structures underlying the reading processes rather than any structural similarities between Korean and English. As a matter of fact, Korean and English are hardly similar to each other in their respective shapes of letters, spelling patterns, and grammatical structures in general. However, considering that successful reading acquisition crucially depends upon readiness levels in reading-related cognitive abilities, we may say that a child who has learned to read in one language has already established a solid foundation for reading another language that the child can speak and understand.

At what stage of Korean reading ability is it most appropriate to begin instruction in English reading?

At least two factors should be considered: (1) the child's level of development of literacy skills in Korean, and (2) the child's level of proficiency in basic oral skills in English. As was discussed in the section above, the teacher can expect extensive transfer of reading skills from Korean to English. The child's ability to comprehend, analyze, and make judgments about a reading passage in Korean will facilitate the child's performance in similar tasks in English (Thonis, 1981).

Literacy involves mastery of at least the following skills: (1) reading readiness; (2) decoding; (3) literal and inferential comprehension; (4) literary skills, such as critical reading, aesthetic appreciation, and reading flexibility; and (5) study skills. Before Korean-speaking students are introduced to English reading, the teacher should ensure that students have developed an adequate command of as many of these literacy skills in Korean as possible. Besides reading readiness and decoding, the student should have advanced to reading comprehension skills in Korean before English reading is introduced. Once the student's literacy skills are expanded to the comprehension stage, the teacher can expect that the student

will be able to bring these cognitive and academic skills to bear on the task of learning to read English.

It may be expected that Korean students instructed in Korean prereading and reading skills from the beginning of school will have developed decoding and some comprehension skills by the end of the second grade. English reading may be introduced at this time, but Korean literacy development should be continued. Instruction in Korean reading should continue to at least the sixth grade, at which time it can be expected that the student has developed the full range of literacy skills described above. In conjunction with literacy instruction in Korean, the student should also be learning to write in Korean. This is an excellent way to reinforce the development of cognitive and academic skills that are being learned through Korean.

Logistical constraints related to staff, materials, and program continuity in Korean literacy instruction can be overcome in part through close communication and coordination with the student's family. Parents can play a vital role in reinforcing and supplementing Korean language development in the school. Parents and other family members should be encouraged to engage the student in interesting activities in Korean, such as telling stories, reading books, playing games, singing songs, and routine day-to-day interaction.

Proficiency in oral skills in English should also be considered so that English reading instruction can be effectively introduced. Before learning to read in English, the child who is not literate in Korean should score at least at the fluent English-speaking level of an accepted test of oral language proficiency that assesses the student's communication skills. Students should be taught to read those vocabulary items and structures that they can orally produce and use correctly. Additionally, English reading should be taught in a way that will build upon the reading skill that the student has already developed in Korean. That is, since the student has already developed reading comprehension skills in Korean, the teacher can focus more on the decoding skills required in English. Emphasis can also be placed on English spelling and grammatical structures unique to English.

Some recently immigrated students from Korea who enroll in elementary and secondary schools in this country may already have developed literacy skills in Korean equivalent to or beyond the sixth-grade level. These students need a program of instruction that focuses on basic communication skills in English and literacy in English designed for second-language learners. The oral communication skills are critical for adequate social adjustment and for understanding instruction in English. The English reading program should build on the students' literacy skills in Korean and concentrate on literacy-related skills peculiar to English.

In summary, before introducing English reading, the student's skill development in reading Korean and producing English should be carefully diagnosed. Based on the diagnosis, the teacher can begin instruction in English reading that will capitalize on the student's achievement of literacy in Korean and oral language development in English. Programs of instruction that promote high levels of biliteracy are likely to have positive outcomes for Korean-speaking students to reap the benefits of proficient bilingualism and avoid the negative consequences of subtractive or limited bilingualism. For a more detailed and comprehensive account of the positive results of biliteracy programs and of possible implementation strategies, see *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework* (1981).

What can school personnel do to ensure that exposure to both the primary language and English will result in a beneficial form of additive bilingualism?

Korean Language Development. By age five or six, all children, except those who are severely retarded or aphasic, acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills in their home language (Cazden, 1972; Cummins, 1979). For United States-born Korean and Korean immigrant children, this means that when they enter school they have already developed basic Korean communicative skills. If the family continues to use Korean in the home and/or if the student is exposed to Korean in other environments, basic communicative competence can be expected.

On the other hand, unless the child is exposed to some type of formal Korean instruction, it is unlikely that the child will develop cognitive/academic language proficiency through that language (Cummins, 1981). Cognitive/academic language skills are those skills associated with literacy and general school achievement (Cummins, 1981). Based on considerable research on schooling in bilingual contexts, cognitive/academic language proficiency in the primary language was found to assist language minority students in: (1) the development of similar cognitive/academic skills in English, (2) the acquisition of basic interpersonal communicative skills in English, (3) maintenance and development of subject matter knowledge and skills (e.g., mathematics, science, and social studies), and (4) maintenance and development of a positive self-concept and a positive adjustment to both minority and majority cultures. Consequently, for language minority students, most efforts at language development in Korean should be directed at the development of cognitive/academic language proficiency--that is, literacy and academic subject matter. This will allow students to avoid the negative effects of subtractive bilingualism and enjoy the benefits of proficient bilingualism. Cognitive/academic language proficiency through Korean can be promoted in several contexts. Home, school, and community are all appropriate settings for this development.

In the home, parents and older siblings should be encouraged to work with preschool and school-age children in a variety of activities that assist children in meeting the academic challenges of school (Wells, 1979). In the past, teachers often encouraged language minority parents to speak English at home. Unfortunately, such a practice is often not possible or even desirable. Most language minority parents do not speak English well enough to be appropriate English models. Trying to speak English under such circumstances severely limits both the quantity and the quality of interaction between parents and children. It almost certainly guarantees that the student will experience a form of subtractive bilingualism. Clearly, parents and other relatives may speak Korean at home and be certain that it will not interfere with English language development; on the contrary, such practices will actually result in higher levels of English attainment (Cummins, 1981). Some activities in Korean are more effective than others in promoting this outcome. Telling stories, playing games, reciting poems, singing songs, and reading to children in Korean are effective. Assisting students with homework is also effective. The key element appears to be the "negotiation of meaning" with children (Cummins, 1981).

The school can promote cognitive/academic language proficiency development in Korean by providing students with a well-organized prereading and reading program that develops skills to at least the sixth-grade level. In addition, an equally important component is the provision of subject matter in Korean. At least one topic area should be selected using Korean as the medium of instruction. Schools can also assist by providing students with ample reading material in the primary language. This allows students the opportunity to practice reading skills and become motivated about reading in general and reading in Korean in particular. Additionally, the school can strengthen the home-school link by sending home materials in Korean (materials that would be used by parents with their children) and by providing parents with training in how to support their children's language development (Thonis, 1981).

Although the school is rarely directly involved in many types of community activities, school personnel are in a position to influence local community leaders in designing and implementing many activities for children. Resource teachers, community liaisons, and other school officials should promote community activities that potentially can develop Korean language skills in minority children. Some activities might include: (1) provision of afternoon and Saturday classes in Korean language and culture; (2) catechism classes in the primary language; (3) a 어린이 란 (Children's Section) or 어린이 시간 (Children's Hour) in Korean language newspapers and on Korean language radio and television broadcasts, respectively; and (4) sponsorship of language and cultural activities by the various fraternal, religious, and educational organizations prevalent in the Korean community (Mackey, 1981). (See Appendix 5 for information on community resources.)

For Korean students with a home language of English, the situation is much different. For these children, basic interpersonal communicative skills have been acquired in English, not Korean. If the children and their parents are interested in bilingualism, then arrangements should be made to develop basic interpersonal communicative skills in Korean. This can be promoted by: (1) having a relative such as a grandparent or aunt/uncle always speak to the children in Korean, (2) enrolling the children in a communicative-based Korean-as-a-second-language class at school, (3) having the children interact with other children who are native speakers of Korean, and (4) providing subject matter classes in Korean to these second-language learners under conditions approximating those of the French Canadian immersion programs (Krashen, 1981).

Whenever two languages are in contact, speakers of the minority language tend to shift within three generations to the majority language. This has been especially evident in the United States. First-generation immigrants are almost always Korean dominant, second-generation individuals tend to be bilingual. Third-generation ethnic community members are often monolingual English speakers (Mackey, 1981). The sociocultural arguments for or against language shift are numerous. What does seem to be clear is that students caught up in the language shift and assimilation process often experience poor scholastic achievement. One way to avoid this is to create a domain in which the minority language is more prestigious than English (Mackey, 1981). This has been accomplished by such diverse groups as Armenians, East Indians, Hasidic Jews, and the Amish, all of whom reserve the domain of religious instruction for the minority language. For other language groups, this might be accomplished by providing, in the school or community, traditional and contemporary cultural studies in the mother tongue. Clearly, any topic area or context can become a domain for the minority language as long as it seems logical, reasonable, and natural to use it. In addition, within the selected domain, English and the minority language should not compete for prestige. The domain-specific dominance of the minority language must be clearly evident.

The following are some suggestions for promoting Korean language use and acquisition by students at the school site.

1. Ethnic projects. Encourage students to form groups and develop Korean projects related to Korean music, dance, arts, sports, and food. Provide an opportunity to share the projects with other students and school personnel. This will give Korean students a chance to use Korean in realistic situations and give other students opportunities to learn Korean words associated with the activities.

2. Korea Day. Provide a day or week for Korea. As part of ethnic day programs in multicultural education activities, contact parents to request their assistance in preparing ethnic foods and

collecting art pieces. While serving foods and traditional Korean drinks such as Soo Jung Gua at the school, guide the participants to the classroom where art objects are exhibited. Have students explain school activities and exhibits in Korean to parents. This is a good opportunity to engage Korean parents in school affairs and to increase students' pride in themselves and their cultural background. (See Appendix 6 for a description of important Korean holidays.)

3. Writing contests. Korean students who have had schooling experience in Korea are familiar with writing contests. Students are encouraged to write compositions or poems in Korean that will be reviewed by an evaluation committee including local community representatives. Select several of the best writing samples and have a ceremony with awards such as dictionaries or other educational materials.

4. Pen pal activity. Pair students with students in Korea and encourage them to write letters to each other in Korean.

5. Reading programs. Provide children's literature and magazines in Korean at the school library and encourage students to read them. Suggest that students read local Korean newspapers and create a scrapbook to share with teachers and other students.

6. Yearbook. Create a "Korean Yearbook Club" that would publish a yearbook in Korean with articles written by the club members and other members at school.

7. Plays, skits, and role plays. Encourage students to read current or traditional plays and perform them on special occasions at school.

8. Korean role models. Students should be given a chance to meet and talk to Korean sports figures, television personalities, college students, and officers who can interact with the students in Korean.

9. Field trips. Take a trip within the Korean community to visit points of interest. This will give students insights into the Korean community in the United States.

English Acquisition. The focus of instruction in and through Korean should be the development of cognitive/academic language proficiency. In English, at least initially, the focus of instruction should be on basic interpersonal communicative skills. As indicated by Krashen (1981), there is a difference between language learning and language acquisition. Language learning is associated with formal instruction such as grammar-based ESL, language arts, and reading instruction. Language acquisition environments are associated with both formal and informal instructional situations. Examples of in-

formal acquisition environments include watching television, playing with peers, or living with a native speaker. Examples of formal acquisition environments are communicative-based ESL and sheltered English classes. To acquire English fluency, students need substantial exposure to English in acquisition-rich environments. This type of environment can be provided in the home, school, or community. Educators often underestimate the exposure that language minority students have to English. Several research studies (Legarreta-Marcaida, 1981; Cummins, 1981) indicate that regardless of the English instructional treatment (submersion, ESL, or bilingual education), language minority students in the United States usually acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills in English in two or three years. This is because all environments contain some "comprehensible input." Whether at home, school, or community, most students eventually obtain enough comprehensible English input and acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills. Nevertheless, parents and teachers should monitor individual student progress to assure adequate exposure to English.

At home, it is not uncommon for children to speak English with some relative, especially siblings. Many youngsters sometimes watch children's television programs such as *Sesame Street, Electric Company*, and cartoons. These are sources of "comprehensible second language input." If one parent has native-like proficiency in English, this parent might want to serve as an English-speaking model. In these cases, for optimal development of both English and Korean, it is probably wise for some family members to maintain consistency as a particular language model and not switch or mix languages frequently. If both parents speak Korean, however, and proficient bilingualism is desired, both parents should consider speaking Korean in the home since exposure to English is sufficiently available in many other domains (Cummins, 1981).

At school, children will acquire native-like ability in English communicative skills in: (1) communicative-based ESL classes (Terrell, 1981); (2) subject matter classes delivered under special sheltered English conditions; and (3) interaction with peers who are English native speakers on the playground, in the halls, during assemblies, on field trips, and in regular classes.

Communicative-based ESL, sheltered English, and other natural language acquisition environments are generally insufficient to promote all of the English language skills needed by language minority students. Once students have developed basic interpersonal communicative skills in English and a normal level of cognitive/academic language proficiency (basic skills learned in and through Korean and/or in sheltered English classes), they are ready to benefit from grammar-based ESL and formal reading instruction in English. This instruction should focus on those cognitive/academic skills not already learned [e.g., language that is not part of the common under-

lying proficiency (Cummins, 1981) and that is specific to English). Examples of such skill areas are decoding, grammar, and spelling skills. Cognitive/academic language development in English is more efficient when school personnel build upon already acquired cognitive/academic language skills in Korean.

Summary

Historically, parents and educators have considered the acquisition of basic interpersonal communicative skills in English as the only critical need for language minority students. While these skills are very important, the development of cognitive/academic language proficiency seems to be even more critical to school success. One way cognitive academic language proficiency can be developed is through Korean. Opportunities to develop cognitive/academic language skills in Korean are not naturally available to students in most communities in California. Therefore, parents and educators must work together to design and implement such activities in the home, school, and community. On the other hand, opportunities to develop basic interpersonal communicative skills in English are naturally present in some language minority homes, most communities, and all schools. Those cognitive/academic language skills not learned in Korean can easily be added in English by specially designed instruction at school.

If students are to benefit from their bilingualism, attention to Korean language development and English language acquisition is necessary. Without this attention, the majority of Korean-speaking children has had and will continue to have serious language, academic, and cultural problems at school. The task of educating language minority students is not simple. Nevertheless, recently, creative and committed educators in tandem with concerned parents have designed and implemented educational programs for language minority students that have resulted in: (1) high levels of English language proficiency, (2) normal cognitive/academic development, (3) positive adjustment to both the minority and majority cultures, and (4) high levels of Korean language development. The purpose of this handbook has been to assist school personnel, parents, and community members in achieving similar goals.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

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Appendix 3

DISTRICTS RANKED BY ENROLLMENT OF LEP STUDENTS (KOREAN) (SPRING, 1982)*

Description: This report rank orders school districts by the total population of LEP students who have a primary language of Korean (column 1). Data is also provided for the total number of LEP of that language in the district (column 2), the number of LEP (Korean) in concentrations of ten or more at a grade in a school (K-6, column 3), and the total district enrollment (column 4). The relationship of each district's LEP in that language group to the district's total enrollment is presented as a percentage in column 5. The district's enrollment of that language group is displayed as a percentage of the state total of the same language in column 6. Each district is rank ordered, based on the percentages computed in column 5 and displayed in column 7. County offices of education frequently report variable enrollments throughout the school year and are therefore not ranked in column 7. Data does not include students in preschools, adult classrooms, juvenile halls, or regional occupational centers.

Title VII = Title VII funding for 1981-1982.
Title VII CG = Title VII consortium grantee for 1981-1982.
Title VII CM = Title VII consortium member for 1981-1982.
Title VII DS = Title VII desegregation support program for 1981-1982.
XXX = No data reported for a given year.

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*Source: California State Department of Education. *DATA/BICAL Report #82-7D*. Sacramento, California: California State Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education, Spring 1982.

Appendix 3 (continued)

District Name		(1) Rank By Number LEP Korean	(2) LEP Korean Enrollment Spring '82	(3) No. of 10+ LEP Korean at a Grade, in a School (K-6)	(4) Total District Enrollment Fall '81	(5) LEP Korean as a % of District Enrollment	(6) Korean LEP as a % of State Korean LEP	(7) Rank Order From Column 5
Los Angeles Unified	Title VII DS	1	2638	631	540903	0.5	33.1	23
Glendale Unified	Title VII	2	396	11	20036	2.0	5.0	1
ABC Unified	Title VII	3	372	86	22581	1.6	4.7	2
Torrance Unified		4	217		21064	1.0	2.7	4
San Francisco Unified	Title VII	5	214		58115	0.4	2.7	33
Hacienda La Puente Unified	Title VII	6	196		23310	0.8	2.5	10
Garden Grove Unified		7	184		38211	0.5	2.3	24
Monterey Peninsula Unified	Title VII	8	176		13759	1.3	2.2	3
Downey Unified	Title VII	9	113		12938	0.9	1.4	7
Irvine Unified	Title VII	10	101		15420	0.7	1.3	12
Santa Clara Unified		11	94		14119	0.7	1.2	13
Rowland Unified	Title VII	12	88		17149	0.5	1.1	25
Anaheim Union High	Title VII	13	82		24097	0.3	1.0	42
Arcadia Unified		14	81		8145	1.0	1.0	5
Sacramento City Unified	Title VII	15	81		40663	0.2	1.0	62
Alhambra City Elementary	Title VII	16	78		9569	0.8	1.0	11
Long Beach Unified	Title VII	17	75		57467	0.1	0.9	100
Norwalk La Mirada Unified	Title VII	18	75		18904	0.4	0.9	34
East Side Union High	Title VII	19	73		20950	0.3	0.9	43
Tustin Unified		20	62		11017	0.6	0.8	20
Alameda City Unified		21	56		8253	0.7	0.7	14
Fullerton Elementary	Title VII	22	56		9576	0.6	0.7	21

Appendix 3 (continued)

District Name		(1) Rank By Number LEP Korean	(2) LEP Korean Enrollment Spring '82	(3) No. of 10+ LEP Korean at a Grade, in a School (K-6)	(4) Total District Enrollment Fall '81	(5) LEP Korean as a % of District Enrollment	(6) Korean LEP as a % of State Korean LEP	(7) Rank Order From Column 5
Huntington Beach Union High	Title VII OG	23	53		19109	0.3	0.7	44
Santa Ana Unified		24	51		32275	0.2	0.6	63
Oakland Unified	Title VII	25	47		48531	0.1	0.6	101
Culver City Unified		26	46		5091	0.9	0.6	8
Palos Verdes Peninsula Unified		27	46		12405	0.4	0.6	35
Alhambra City High		28	45		8920	0.5	0.6	26
Hayward Unified		29	43		16783	0.3	0.5	45
Bellflower Unified		30	42		8688	0.5	0.5	27
Fremont Unified	Title VII	31	40		25275	0.2	0.5	64
Milpitas Unified		32	40		8099	0.5	0.5	28
Mt. Diablo Unified		33	39		33358	0.1	0.5	102
Moreland Elementary		34	39		3807	1.0	0.5	6
Anaheim Elementary		35	38		11336	0.3	0.5	46
Westminster Elementary		36	38		7997	0.5	0.5	29
San Jose Unified	Title VII OG	37	37		31864	0.1	0.5	103
Centralia Elementary		38	36		3959	0.9	0.5	9
Montebello Unified	Title VII	39	35		27590	0.1	0.4	104
San Diego City Unified	Title VII	40	35		110904	0.0	0.4	199
Burbank Unified		41	34		11565	0.3	0.4	47
Pasadena Unified	Title VII	42	34		22420	0.2	0.4	65
Ocean View Elementary		43	34		10461	0.3	0.4	48
Franklin McKinley Elementary	Title VII	44	33		7797	0.4	0.4	36

Appendix 3 (continued)

District Name		(1) Rank By Number LEP Korean	(2) LEP Korean Enrollment Spring '82	(3) No. of 10+ LEP Korean at a Grade, in a School (K-6)	(4) Total District Enrollment Fall '81	(5) LEP Korean as a % of District Enrollment	(6) Korean LEP as a % of State Korean LEP	(7) Rank Order From Column 5
Orange Unified	Title VII	45	32		26702	0.1	0.4	105
Temple City Unified		46	30		4348	0.7	0.4	15
Saddleback Valley Unified		47	30		20612	0.1	0.4	106
Berryessa Union Elementary		48	29		8999	0.3	0.4	49
Magnolia Elementary		49	27		3910	0.7	0.3	16
San Bernardino City Unified	Title VII	50	25		25665	0.1	0.3	107
Campbell Union Elementary		51	25		5889	0.4	0.3	37
Hawthorne Elementary		52	24		4769	0.5	0.3	30
Fountain Valley Elementary		53	24		7795	0.3	0.3	50
Cupertino Union Elementary		54	23		12210	0.2	0.3	66
Fremont Union High		55	23		11667	0.2	0.3	67
Simi Valley Unified		56	23		19761	0.1	0.3	108
Santa Monica-Malibu Unified	Title VII	57	22		11148	0.2	0.3	68
Placentia Unified	Title VII	58	22		17176	0.1	0.3	109
Alum Rock Union Elementary	Title VII	59	22		13255	0.2	0.3	69
Little Lake City Elementary	Title VII	60	21		4164	0.5	0.3	31
San Juan Unified	Title VII	61	20		44186	0.0	0.3	200
Fairfield Suisun Unified		62	20		13158	0.2	0.3	70
New Haven Unified	Title VII	63	19		9211	0.2	0.2	71
San Lorenzo Unified		64	19		7913	0.2	0.2	72
Ventura Unified		65	19		14789	0.1	0.2	110
Conejo Valley Unified		66	19		19220	0.1	0.2	111

Appendix 3 (continued)

District Name		(1) Rank By Number LEP Korean	(2) LEP Korean Enrollment Spring '82	(3) No. of 10+ LEP Korean at a Grade, in a School (K-6)	(4) Total District Enrollment Fall '81	(5) LEP Korean as a % of District Enrollment	(6) Korean LEP as a % of State Korean LEP	(7) Rank Order From Column 5
La Habra City Elementary	Title VII	67	18		4234	0.4	0.2	38
Fresno Unified		68	17		47802	0.0	0.2	201
Redlands Unified		69	17		10817	0.2	0.2	73
Whittier City Elementary		70	16		5254	0.3	0.2	51
Jefferson Elementary		71	16		5679	0.3	0.2	52
Richmond Unified		72	15		28127	0.1	0.2	112
Claremont Unified		73	15		5549	0.3	0.2	53
Walnut Valley Unified		74	15		8392	0.2	0.2	74
Los Alamitos Unified		75	15		5301	0.3	0.2	54
Chaffey Union High		76	15		12582	0.1	0.2	113
Ontario Montclair Elementary		77	15		15649	0.1	0.2	114
Poway City Unified		78	15		14919	0.1	0.2	115
Oak Grove Elementary		79	15		13270	0.1	0.2	116
Albany City Unified		80	14		2107	0.7	0.2	17
East Whittier City Elementary	Title VII	81	14		5878	0.2	0.2	75
West Covina Unified		82	14		8111	0.2	0.2	76
San Mateo City Elementary		83	14		8767	0.2	0.2	77
Vallejo City Unified	Title VII	84	14		14212	0.1	0.2	117
Paramount Unified		85	13		10196	0.1	0.2	118
Chino Unified	Title VII	86	13		15914	0.1	0.2	119
Centinela Valley Union High		87	12		6225	0.2	0.2	78
Covina Valley Unified		88	12		11089	0.1	0.2	120

Appendix 3 (continued)

District Name		(1) Rank By Number LEP Korean	(2) LEP Korean Enrollment Spring '82	(3) No. of 10+ LEP Korean at a Grade, in a School (K-6)	(4) Total District Enrollment Fall '81	(5) LEP Korean as a % of District Enrollment	(6) Korean LEP as a % of State Korean LEP	(7) Rank Order From Column 5
Lawndale Elementary		89	12		4083	0.3	0.2	55
Buena Park Elementary		90	12		3621	0.3	0.2	56
Huntington Beach City Elementary		91	12		6386	0.2	0.2	79
Newport Mesa Unified		92	12		18029	0.1	0.2	121
Elk Grove Unified	Title VII CG	93	12		13528	0.1	0.2	122
Garvey Elementary	Title VII	94	11		6507	0.2	0.1	80
Redondo Beach City Elementary		95	11		4531	0.2	0.1	81
Salinas Union High		96	11		7348	0.1	0.1	123
Savanna Elementary		97	11		1665	0.7	0.1	18
Goleta Union Elementary		98	11		3795	0.3	0.1	57
Sunnyvale Elementary		99	11		5506	0.2	0.1	82
Pacific Grove Unified		100	10		2504	0.4	0.1	39
Fullerton Joint Union High		101	10		12560	0.1	0.1	124
South San Francisco Unified		102	10		9901	0.1	0.1	125
Pleasant Valley Elementary		103	10		5565	0.2	0.1	83
Wheatland Elementary		104	10		1521	0.7	0.1	19

Appendix 4

EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES

A. Classroom Instructional Materials

1. Bookstores/Publishers

The following bookstores have extensive bibliographies available with listings of both elementary and secondary resource materials in the areas of Korean language, history, culture, religion, literature, philosophy, science, social studies, arts, etc.

Dong-A Book Mart, Inc.
3460 West Eighth Street
Los Angeles, CA 90005
(213) 321-4652

Jeong-Eum-Sa Imports, Inc.
3030 West Olympic Boulevard
V.I.P. Plaza, Suite #111
Los Angeles, CA 90006
(213) 387-4082

Korea Publication Center
3343 West Eighth Street
Los Angeles, CA 90005
(213) 383-0526

Korean Book Center
388 Eleventh Avenue
San Francisco, CA 94118
(415) 221-4250

Koreasne Book Center
540 Balboa Street
San Francisco, CA 94118
(415) 752-2625

Orange Christian Village
9112 Garden Grove Boulevard
Garden Grove, CA 92644
(714) 636-7430

Oriental Market
9189 Kiefer Boulevard
Sacramento, CA 95826
(916) 361-7120

2. Public Institutions

The following school districts and resource agencies have developed materials for Korean bilingual programs.

Asian Bilingual Curriculum
Development Center
Seton Hall University
162 South Orange Avenue
South Orange, NJ 07079
(201) 762-4382

Comprehensive Educational
Assistance Center
California State University,
Fullerton
800 North State College Boulevard
Fullerton, CA 92634
(714) 773-3994

Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center
California State University, Los Angeles
5151 State University Drive
Los Angeles, CA 90032
(213) 224-3676

Glendale Unified School District
Intercultural Education
223 North Jackson Street
Glendale, CA 91206
(213) 241-3111

Los Angeles Unified School District
ESL/Bilingual Branch
450 North Grand Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90051
(213) 625-6000

National Asian Center for Bilingual Education
Alhambra City Schools
10801 National Boulevard
Suite 404
Los Angeles, CA 90064
(213) 598-0481

San Francisco Unified School District
ESL/Bilingual Programs
135 Van Ness Avenue
San Francisco, CA 94102
(415) 565-9000

3. Korean Government Agencies

The following agencies provide cultural resource materials and films to schools on request.

Korean Consulate General in Los Angeles
5455 Wilshire Boulevard
Suite #1101
Los Angeles, CA 90036
(213) 931-1331

Korean Consulate General in San Francisco
3500 Clay Street
San Francisco, CA 94118
(415) 921-2251

Korean Cultural Service
5505 Wilshire Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90036
(213) 933-5651

Korean National Tourism Corporation
510 West Sixth Street
Suite 323
Los Angeles, CA 90014
(213) 623-1226

The following is a partial listing of films available from the above agencies on request.

Anapji Pond (English; 30 minutes). A documentary on the excavation of precious relics from a pond that was constructed over 1,000 years ago with amazing gardening and landscaping techniques. It was a beautiful royal banquet site built in 674 A.D.

Buddhist Bells of Korea (English; 15 minutes). The film describes the characteristics of Korean Buddhist temple bells.

Dano Day (English; 20 minutes). The folkore and customs of a celebration observed on Dano (or Tano) Day, one of the four great Korean festival days, is colorfully presented here.

5,000 Years of Korean Art (English; 30 minutes). This is a cinematic exhibit of Korean relics and works of art being displayed in museums in the United States.

Han Geul (English; 30 minutes). The invention of the Korean alphabet and the introduction of Han Geul (or Hangul) are depicted in this film.

Korean Children (English; 20 minutes). Colorful scenery provides a backdrop for a description of the family, school, and social life of Korean children.

Korean Farmer's Band (English; 26 minutes). This film presents a farmer's band music and dance, a very traditional folk play of Korea.

Korean Garments (English; 30 minutes). Traditional Korean costumes are shown in this film, along with an explanation of how they are made and worn.

Korean Wooden Furniture (English; 20 minutes). Traditional Korean wooden furniture and modern woodcraft are depicted.

Koryo Celadon (English; 30 minutes). The historic background and production process of Koryo celadon are described.

National Folklore Museum (English; 20 minutes). The display at the National Folklore Museum in Kyongbok Palace in Seoul, Korea, is shown in this film.

Taekwondo: Traditional Martial Arts for Self-Defense (English; 20 minutes). The art of self-defense, a traditional national sport of Korea, is demonstrated.

Traditional Musical Instruments of Korea (English; 24 minutes). Various Korean musical instruments are demonstrated and described in this film.

Under the Spring Sun (English; 20 minutes). A schoolboy in Seoul visits his grandfather's house in a local province.

White Porcelain of the Yi Dynasty (English; 20 minutes). Depicts the beauty of the white porcelain of the Yi dynasty and recreates the life of the people of that period.

B. Korean Bilingual Teacher Training Institutions

California State University,
Los Angeles
School of Education
5151 State University Drive
Los Angeles, CA 90032
(213) 224-3676

George Mason University
Center for Bilingual/Multicultural Teacher Preparation
4400 University Drive
Fairfax, VA 22030
(703) 323-2691

National College of Education
2840 Sheridan Road
Evanston, IL 60201
(315) 256-5150

Seton Hall University
School of Education
South Orange, NJ 07079
(201) 862-9000, ext. 328

University of Southern California
School of Education
Teacher Education Department
University Park
Los Angeles, CA 90007
(213) 741-2930

University of Washington
College of Education
P. O. Box DQ-12
Seattle, WA 98195
(206) 543-4203

Appendix 5

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS AND MEDIA SERVICES

A. Community Organizations

LOS ANGELES COUNTY

Asian-American Drug Abuse Program
5318 South Crenshaw Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90043
(213) 293-6284

Korean American Association of Education, Inc.
Attn: Bong Ja Chung
Los Angeles High School
4650 West Olympic Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90019
(213) 937-3210

Korean American Educators Association
Attn: Suzie K. Oh
Administrative Region H
Los Angeles Unified School District
634 Sunset Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90012
(213) 625-5539

Korean-American Scholarship Fund
1420 Abajo
Monterey Park, CA 91754
(213) 284-9782

Korean-American Youth Foundation, Inc.
20281 Running Spring Lane
Huntington Beach, CA 92646

Korean Association of Southern California
981 South Western Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90006
(213) 732-3593

Korean Community Services
6125 Carlos Avenue
Hollywood, CA 90028
(213) 466-4145

The Korean Crippled Child Parents' Association
972 South Arapahoe Street
Los Angeles, CA 90006
(213) 386-2890

Korean Educational Guidance Center
952 South Western Avenue
Suite 201
Los Angeles, CA 90006
(213) 735-4449

Korean Youth Center
309 South Oxford Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90020
(213) 383-5218

Koryo Health Foundation
3544 West Olympic Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90019
(213) 731-0686

Los Angeles Olympic Lions Club
3388 West Eighth Street
Suite 206
Los Angeles, CA 90005
(213) 381-1285

Los Angeles Police Department
Korea Town Office
3330 West Eighth Street
Los Angeles, CA 90005

Wilshire YMCA
Korean Program Center
225 South Oxford Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90020
(213) 386-8570

ORANGE COUNTY

Korean-American Cultural Society, Inc.
5232 Marietta Avenue
Garden Grove, CA 92645
(714) 598-9166

Korean Association of Orange County
9681 Garden Grove Boulevard
Suite 203
Garden Grove, CA 92644
(714) 530-8413

Korean Lions Club of Orange County
18681 Valley Drive
Villa Park, CA 92667
(714) 879-0142

SAN DIEGO

Korean Association of San Diego
1031 25th Street
San Diego, CA 92102
(619) 230-1031

SAN FRANCISCO

Korean American Association of
San Francisco and Bay Area
869 Ellis Street
San Francisco, CA 94109
(415) 776-0511

Korean Community Service
3146 Fulton Street
San Francisco, CA 94118
(415) 567-3267

Multi-Services Center
for Koreans
966 Market Street
San Francisco, CA 94102
(415) 441-1881

SACRAMENTO

Korean Community of Sacramento
2111 16th Street
Sacramento, CA 95818
(916) 447-4448

Stepping Stones
2012 P Street
Sacramento, CA 95814
(916) 442-7836

SANTA BARBARA

Central California Korean Community
Association
828 Moss Court
Santa Maria, CA 93454
(805) 922-1206

SANTA CLARA

Korean American Chamber of Commerce
of Greater Santa Clara County
425 East Remington Drive, #6
Sunnyvale, CA 94087
(408) 733-6412

San Jose Korean Association
1026 East El Camino Real
Sunnyvale, CA 94087
(408) 738-8729

B. Radio and Television Stations

Han Kook T.V., Inc.
141 North Vermont Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90004
(213) 487-5323

KBLA (KMAX FM 107.1)
606 South Hobart Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90005
(213) 385-1957
(Saturday: 6-9 p.m.)

Korean T.V. of San Francisco
3238 Balboa Street
San Francisco, CA 94121
(415) 668-7077

Seoul T.V. Station
2580 West Olympic Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90006
(213) 389-2500

T.V. Korean
5225 Wilshire Boulevard
Suite 420
Los Angeles, CA 90036
(213) 935-1289

All T.V. programs are aired on Channel 18 throughout the week between 7:00 p.m. and 11:00 p.m. in the Los Angeles area. In San Francisco, programs are aired on Saturdays on Channel 26. Programs are listed in local papers and in the TV Guide.

C. Newspapers and Magazines

1. Daily

THE DONG-A-ILBO ORIENTAL DAILY NEWS (Korean)
1035 South Crenshaw Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90019
(213) 933-9228

*1241 Taraval Street
San Francisco, CA 94116
(415) 665-2777

THE JOONG-ANG DAILY NEWS (Korean)
3580 West Olympic Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90006
(213) 389-2500

*3238 Balboa Street
San Francisco, CA 94121
(415) 668-7077

THE HAN-KOOK-IL-BO KOREA TIMES (Korean/English)
141 North Vermont Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90004

*274 Shotwell Street
San Francisco, CA 94110
(415) 864-0954

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*Branch office

2. Weekly

KOREAN STREET JOURNAL (Korean)
2836 West Eighth Street
Los Angeles, CA 90005
(213) 738-7999

KOREA TOWN (English)
2511 McGregor Drive
Rancho Cordova, CA 95670
(916) 635-7955

3. Monthly

NEW LIFE (English/Korean)
6125 Carlos Avenue
Hollywood, CA 90028
(213) 466-4145

D. Korean Language Schools

More than 100 schools are open on weekends throughout California to teach Korean language, history, and culture. More information can be obtained from the following.

1. Northern California

Korean American Education Center
of Northern California
822 Everett Street
El Cerrito, CA 94530
(415) 524-1985

Korean Consulate General
in San Francisco
3500 Clay Street
San Francisco, CA 94118

2. Southern California

Korean School of Southern
California
981 South Western Avenue
Suite 201
Los Angeles, CA 90006
(213) 731-7121

Korean Consulate General
in Los Angeles
5455 Wilshire Boulevard
Suite 1101
Los Angeles, CA 90036
(213) 931-1331

Appendix 6

HOLIDAYS AND SPECIAL EVENTS CELEBRATED IN THE KOREAN COMMUNITY

Throughout the year, numerous holidays and special events are observed by Koreans at home and abroad, wherever Korean communities exist. Some are centuries old and others are relatively new. Traditional festivals are based on the lunar calendar, while holidays of recent origin are set according to the solar almanac.

NEW YEAR'S DAY--January 1

The first day of January, New Year's Day, or Sol, is one of the biggest holidays of the year. People dress in their best, take a rest from work, and all the family gathers together to observe the ancestral ceremonies. A feast is spread out and the younger members of the family make New Year's obeisance to the elders. Then the young ones go around the neighborhood to offer New Year's greetings to their older relatives and acquaintances. The recent trend is that the lunar New Year's Day is being replaced by its solar counterpart, especially in the cities.

CHILDREN'S DAY--May 5

Children are honored by Koreans as symbols of the future of the family and the nation. This holiday features ceremonies, contests, and awards for children.

BUDDHA'S BIRTHDAY--Eighth day of the fourth month of the lunar calendar.

In honor of Buddha's birthday, Buddhists observe a "lantern festival." Solemn rituals are held at Buddhist temples, and the day's festival is climaxed by a lantern parade.

TANO FESTIVAL--Fifth day of the fifth month of the lunar calendar.

The fifth day of May is called Tano (or Dano) Day, another big holiday. According to ancient records, on this day people rest from work, dress up in their best, and feast as they did on New Year's Day. Special events for this day include wrestling matches for men, in which the champion receives a bull as a prize; and swinging competitions for women, in which the winner gets a gold ring.

NATIONAL FOUNDATION DAY--October 3

This day marks the traditional founding of Korea by Tangun in 2333 B.C. Legend has it that Tangun took on a human form from a mountain spirit and became the father, teacher, and king of the Korean people for 93 years before reascending to the spiritual world.

CHUSOK OR MOON FESTIVAL DAY--Fifteenth day of the eighth month of the lunar calendar.

Since this date marks the harvest time, it is regarded as a day of thanksgiving and is celebrated almost as enthusiastically as New Year's Day. It is one of the great national holidays of the year. It is featured by enjoying the fruits of the harvest and viewing the full moon.

HANGUL (KOREAN ALPHABET) DAY--October 9

This day celebrates the anniversary of the promulgation of Hangul, Korea's impressive phonetic writing system, by King Sejong of the YI Dynasty in 1443.

SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA KOREAN FESTIVAL AND PARADE

For one week in the middle of September every year, Korean-Americans hold a parade and festival in Los Angeles. The event is cosponsored by the *Korea Times*, Korea Town Development Association, and the Korean Association of Southern California. During this time, Koreans share their music, art, sports, and traditions with their neighbors in southern California.

In addition to these traditional holidays, there are other designated national holidays in Korea:

Independence Movement Day (March 1)
Arbor Day (April 5)
Memorial Day (June 6)
Constitution Day (July 17)
Liberation Day (August 15)
Christmas Day (December 25)

Much of this section was written based on information found in *A Handbook on Korea*. Seoul, Korea: Korean Overseas Information Service, Ministry of Culture and Information, 1982.

GLOSSARY

1. *Additive Bilingualism*: a process by which individuals develop proficiency in a second language subsequent to or simultaneous with the development of proficiency in the primary language.

2. *Affective Filter*: a construct developed to refer to the effects of personality, motivation, and other affective variables on second language acquisition. These variables interact with each other and with other factors to raise or lower the affective filter. It is hypothesized that when the filter is "high," the L_2 acquirer is not able to adequately process "comprehensible input."

3. *Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills*: a construct originally developed by James Cummins to refer to aspects of language proficiency strongly associated with the basic communicative fluency achieved by all normal native speakers of a language. Basic interpersonal communicative skills are not highly correlated with literacy and academic achievement. Cummins has further refined this notion in terms of "cognitively undemanding-contextualized" language.

4. *Bilingual Education Program*: an organized curriculum that includes: (1) L_1 development, (2) L_2 acquisition, and (3) subject matter development throught L_1 and L_2. Bilingual programs are organized so that participating students may attain a level of proficient bilingualism.

5. *Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency*: a construct originally proposed by James Cummins to refer to aspects of language proficiency strongly related to literacy and academic achievement. Cummins has further refined this notion in terms of "cognitively demanding decontextualized" language.

6. *Comprehensible Second-Language Input*: a construct developed by Krashen to describe understandable and meaningful language directed at L_2 acquirers under optimal conditions. Comprehensible L_2 input is characterized as language which the L_2 acquirer already knows (i) plus a range of new language (i + 1), which is made comprehensible in formal school contexts by the use of certain planned strategies. These strategies include but are not limited to: (a) focus on communicative content rather than language forms; (b) frequent use of concrete contextual referents; (c) lack of restrictions on L_1 use by L_2 acquirers, especially in the initial stages; (d) careful grouping practices; (e) minimal overt language form correction by teaching staff; and (f) provision of motivational acquisition situations.

7. *Communicative-Based ESL*: a second language instructional approach in which the goals, teaching methods and techniques, and assessments of student progress are all based on behavioral objectives defined in terms of abilities to communicate messages in the target language. In communicative-based ESL, the focus is on language function and use and not on language form and usage. Examples of communicative-based ESL instructional approaches include Suggestopedia, the Natural Approach, and Community Language Learning.

8. *Grammar-Based ESL*: a second language instructional approach in which the goals, teaching methods and techniques, and assessments of student progress are all based on behavioral objectives defined in terms of abilities to produce grammatically correct utterances in the target language. In grammar-based ESL, the focus is on language form and usage and not on language function and use. Examples of grammar-based ESL instructional approaches include Grammar-Translation, Audiolingualism, and Cognitive Code.

9. *Immersion Program*: an organized curriculum that includes: (1) L_1 development, (2) L_2 acquisition, and (3) subject matter development through L_2. Immersion programs are developed and managed so that participating students may develop proficient bilingualism.

10. *Limited Bilingualism*: a level of bilingualism at which individuals attain less than native-like proficiency in both L_1 and L_2. Such individuals invariably acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills in L_1 and often demonstrate basic interpersonal communicative skills in L_2 as well.

11. *Monitor*: a construct developed to refer to the mechanism by which L_2 learners process, store, and retrieve conscious language rules. Conscious rules are placed in the Monitor as a result of language learning. In order to effectively use the Monitor, L_2 users must: (1) have sufficient time to retrieve the desired rule, (2) be involved in a task focused on language forms and not on language functions, and (3) have previously learned correctly and stored the rule. These three conditions are rarely present in normal day-to-day conversational contexts.

12. *Partial Bilingualism*: a level of bilingualism at which individuals attain native-like proficiency in the full range of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing skills in one language but achieve less than native-like skills in some or all of these skills areas in the other language.

13. *Proficient Bilingualism*: a level of bilingualism at which individuals attain native-like proficiency in the full range of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing skills in both L_1 and L_2.

14. *Sheltered English Classes*: subject matter class periods delivered in L_2 in which teachers: (1) homogenously group L_2 acquirers, (2) speak in a native speaker to non-native speaker register similar to "motherese" or "foreigner talk," and (3) provide L_2 acquirers with substantial amounts of "comprehensible second language input."

15. *Submersion Classes*: subject matter class periods delivered in L_2 in which teachers: (1) mix native speakers with second language acquirers, (2) speak in a native speaker-tonative speaker register, and (3) provide L_2 acquirers with only minimal amounts of "comprehensible second language input."

16. *Submersion Program*: an organized curriculum designed for native speakers of a language but often used with language minority students. No special instructional activities focus upon the needs of language minority students. Submersion programs are often referred to as "Sink or Swim" models. In such programs, language minority students commonly experience a form of subtractive bilingualism, usually limited bilingualism.

17. *Subtractive Bilingualism*: a process by which individuals develop less than native-like cognitive/academic language proficiency in L_1 as a result of improper exposure to L_1 and L_2 in school. In certain instances, some individuals additionally experience loss of basic interpersonal communicative skills in L_1. In such cases, L_1 basic interpersonal communicative skills are replaced by L_2 basic interpersonal communicative skills.

18. *Transitional Bilingual Education Program*: an organized curriculum that includes: (1) L_1 development, (2) L_2 acquisition, and (3) subject matter development through L_1 and L_2. In *Early Transitional* programs, students are exited to English submersion programs solely on the basis of the acquisition of L_2 basic interpersonal communicative skills. In *Late Transitional* programs, students are exited on the basis of attainment of native-like levels of both L_2 basic interpersonal communicative skills and L_2 cognitive/academic language proficiency sufficient to sustain academic achievement through successful completion of secondary school.